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## THORNTON'S ARABIC SERIES, VOLUME 1.

ELEMENTARY ARABIC
A GRAMMAR

## CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

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## ELEMENTARY ARABIC

## A GRAMMAR

BY<br>FREDERIC DU PRE THORNTON

being an abridgement of
WRIGHT'S ARABIC GRAMMAR
to which it will serve as a table of contents

## EDITED BY

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## Cambridge:

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## PREFACE.

FREDERIC DU PRE THORNTON was born in 1841 at Wendover in Buckinghamshire, where his father, the Rev. Spencer Thornton, was Vicar, and received his education at Brighton College. He commenced the study of Arabic in 1880, when he first visited Egypt and Palestine, following the method which he recommends in his First Reading-Book, namely, "to begin by reading aloud, from a book fully pointed, with a Moslem who is accustomed to recite the Qur'ân (Corân) in public prayer." From 1880 to 1892 he was almost continually in the East. As Mrs Thornton, who accompanied her husband on all his journeys, writes to me:"He was very quick at languages and thought much of correct pronunciation, so that during several visits to Egypt he had one of the students from the University Mosque al Azhar, Cairo, to read Arabic with him. His whole thoughts and time were given up to his projected Series, and especially to the Arabic Grammar, as he found so many in Egypt, Army officers and missionaries, who did not care to go to the expense or labour of learning the larger and more difficult Grammars. We visited twice the Jebel Haurân, the ancient Bashan of §the Bible, and found it a most interesting country to travel勺
in, and the Druse people very hospitable, especially to the English. My husband's idea in visiting India was to find out about the Moslems there, and whether they spoke Arabic much amongst themselves, which does not seem to be the case. It is only used there as the Sacred Language." Mr Thornton was acquainted with most of the leading Arabists in this country-Professor William Wright, a portion of whose Arabic Reading-Book (Williams and Norgate, 1870) he read with the author; Professor W. Robertson Smith, Professor Ion Keith Falconer, Sir Charles Lyall, Professor D. S. Margoliouth, and others. My friendship with him began, I think, in 1893 or a little afterwards, and we corresponded pretty regularly until his death, which took place in January 1903, besides meeting now and then to talk over the work on which he was engaged. I have pleasant recollections of the hospitality shown to me by Mr and Mrs Thornton on several occasions when I stayed with them at Westgate-on-Sea, as well as of the enthusiasm with which Mr Thornton would discourse on his favourite topics. Few can have known Wright's Grammar so perfectly as he did, and though the present volume bears witness to his minute accuracy and to the systematic thoroughness with which he entered into the smallest details of exposition, only those whom he consulted or who helped him in his work can have any conception how much thought and labour it cost him to produce. He was trying to improve it almost to the last day of his life.

This volume, however, does not stand by itself. It was Mr Thornton's intention to compile and publish an Arabic Series, based on the Corân, which should enable the learner to get a good working knowledge of the language without the necessity of constantly referring to other books. Of this
projected Series he left two volumes already printed and in private circulation, viz. the present abridgement of Wright's Grammar and a First Reading-Book consisting of certain extracts from the Corân together with a Grammatical Analysis and Glossary. Subsequently he determined to enlarge the latter volume by adding to it some fifty pages of Wright's Arabic Reading-Book, which had nearly run out of print; and at his request I compiled a Glossary for this additional matter. It was passing through the press when its progress was interrupted by Mr Thornton's untimely death.

Fortunately, the scheme which he had so deeply at heart is to be carried out in its entirety, as far as another hand may be capable of executing his design ; and since Mrs Thornton has entrusted me with the task of editing and completing the Series, I will briefly indicate the plan of the whole before proceeding to speak of the first volume in particular.

Thornton's Arabic Series will be published by the Cambridge University Press and will consist of four (or possibly five) volumes entitled as follows.
I. Elementary Arabic : a Grammar.
II. Elementary Arabic: First Reading-Book. This will contain selected passages from the Corân, viz. Ch. I, Ch. II 256 , Ch. viI 52 to 62 and 101 to 170 inclusive, also Ch. Lxiv; the text of a portion of Wright's Arabic Reading-Book, namely, pp. 13 to 64, beginning with "Stories of Arab Warriors" and ending with "The Escape of 'Abd al Raḥmân the Umaiyad from Syria into Spain"; a Grammatical Analysis of the above-mentioned Corânic texts; and finally a full Glossary.
III. Elementary Arabic: Second Reading-Book, containing passages from unpublished MSS. (or, at least, such as have not been previously edited in Europe).

IV Elementary Arabic: Third Reading-Book, which will probably comprise the whole of Wright's Arabic ReadingBook from p. 64 to the end.

The plan thus sketched departs from Mr Thornton's only in one comparatively trivial point. Instead of providing each volume with its own glossary, he contemplated a single Dictionary giving all the Arabic words contained in the three Reading-Books. There is indeed much to be said for this arrangement, by which a good deal of repetition would be avoided, but practical considerations seem to require that the First Reading-Book at any rate should be self-sufficing. With regard to the Second and Third Reading-Books the case is different, and I am inclined to think that they should not have separate glossaries. In this event a Dictionary such as Mr Thornton contemplated will form the fifth volume of the Series. Any suggestions as to the course which should be followed in this matter and also as to the scope of the Second Reading-Book, that is to say, what principle of selection would be most advantageous, will be gratefully received.

I now come to Elementary Arabic: a Grammar.
Concerning its origin I may quote Mr Thornton's own words appended by way of conclusion to the edition which was printed in 1900 by Messrs Stephen Austin of Hertford for private circulation.
"In the year 1885 I consulted Professor W. Robertson Smith about the possibility of there being written an elementary Grammar of Arabic capable of serving as introduction
to Wright's masterly, but to beginners somewhat perplexing, book*; to which enquiry he made reply, 'There are two difficulties: to know what to put in, and to know what to leave out.' Ten years later I determined to make the attempt, 'putting in' all required by the grammatical analysis (then as now in manuscript) of my First ReadingBook and, so far as could be, 'leaving out' everything else; for I supposed that a rule would only be needed, if the Reading-Book's Arabic text afford an example in illustration ; and I hoped by retaining Wright's section numbers that my abridgement might become a table of contents to his Grammar. I had supplied lists of omissions to Professors W. R. Smith and de Goeje with a view to their being remedied in the forthcoming 3rd edition; and such omissions as I subsequently discovered have been placed in this book under the heading of 'Note,' so that my trivial additions stand markedly apart from (my abridgement of) the scholarly text."

Mr Thornton then goes on to speak of his Elementary Arabic: First Reading-Book, to which reference has been made above, calling attention to the fact that all its words appear singly in Parts I and II of the Grammar, and all recur later in phrases to illustrate syntax. As he observes, "it may be said to supply almost without exception my Grammar's examples." The remainder of his Conclusion I will quote entire.

[^0]"From a biographical sketch of M. S. de Sacy written in October 1895 by Professor Hartwig Derenbourg, Titulaire de la chaire de Silvestre de Sacy à l'École spéciale des langues orientales vivantes, I borrow the following:

La grammaire arabe de Caspari, le livre de classe qui, depuis 1848, n'a pas cessé d'être mis entre les mains des élèves dans des rédactions latine (1848), allemande (1859, 1866, 1876, et 1887), anglaise ( 1862 et 1874) et française (1880), tient le milieu entre les tendances des deux rivaux. "Elle s'appuie, dit M. Fleischer, sur Sacy et Ewald, et cherche seulement, avec quelques rectifications et additions que j'ai fournies, à réunir les qualités de l'un et de l'autre... La grammaire de l'ancien arabe ne progressera vraiment d'une manière sensible que le jour où, d'un côté, on comparera et appréciera avec une balance de précision les philologues orientaux répartis dans les diverses écoles, et où, d'autre part, l'on soumettra les matériaux accumulés dans leurs plus excellents traités à une enquête approfondie dirigée dans le sens de notre linguistique."

Dans cette dernière direction, c'est à peine si nous avons dépassé la première étape, franchie d'un seul bond par le jeune Ewald, alors presque à ses débuts. L'édition anglaise de Caspari, par M. William Wright, ouvre seule quelques échappées sur l'horizon encore incertain de la philologie sémitique comparée. La Grammaire de la langue arabe qui, dans ses diverses transformations, continue à porter le nom de Caspari, se recommande et a réussi surtout à cause de son ordonnance harmonieuse: point de dérogations au plan général, chaque règle à sa place, pas de redites, pas de doubles emplois, une sobriété dans les tours de phrase n'excluant pas la clarté, une clarté obtenue sans redondances oiseuses et sans vainés amplifications. C'est un peu terre à terre, et cela manque d'essor; mais si l'imagination n'y trouve pas son compte, la raison est pleinement satisfaite par ce Lhomond de la langue arabe.
"Charles François Lhomond died in 17.94 at the age of 67 , having been maltreated by Parisian revolutionists, perhaps because of his writing in defence of Catholic faith as understood by him. His chief claim to posthumous fame lies in his devotion to the work of compiling elementary books and it is in this respect that his name may be conferred on those who do likewise. My readers will thank me for putting before them Professor Derenbourg's eloquent appreciation of the Grammar still called by Caspari's name, to the praise of which I heartily subscribe. Wright has, however, carried matters further, for the glimpses of Semitic philology mentioned above, together with much more, have been published by Robertson Smith in Wright's Comparative Grammar; and since 1895 Professor de Goeje has bestowed upon the world of Semitic letters a boon, for which we cannot be too thankful, by devoting his valuable time and known scholarship to the work of enabling Cambridge University Press to issue a 3rd Edition of Wright's Arabic Grammar: it is this which I have abridged.
"Much thanks are due from me to kind helpers more numerous than can be mentioned, but I must especially single out the Rev. G. W. Thatcher of Mansfield College, Oxford, without whose efficient assistance I might well have found it impossible to thread the mazes of Arabic syntax."

In preparing this new edition of Mr Thornton's Grammar I have incorporated some additions and corrections which I found in his interleaved copy of the last edition, and have added an abstract of $\S \S 191$ to 230 in Wright's Grammar, which treat of Prosody. Mr Thornton omitted these sections on the ground that they were not needed for his Elementary Arabic: First Reading-Book, but he would undoubtedly have supplied the deficiency in view of the enlarged issue of that book, which has been described above and which will shortly
be published as the second volume of this Series. I have also removed some references in the Grammar to the original edition of the First Reading-Book, giving the corresponding references to the Corân instead. In other respects I have made as few alterations as possible, since I know that Mr Thornton had pondered every word of his work over and over again and that he took infinite pains to secure the clearest and most concise expression.

It must be borne in mind that the author of this work intended it to be used side by side with his First ReadingBook, for which it is specially adapted and from which nearly all its examples are drawn. He regarded the one book as the complement of the other and even, I think, disliked the idea of their being sold separately. I hope, therefore, to bring out the enlarged First Reading-Book with as little delay as my other engagements permit, and I would strongly recommend all students of the Grammar to acquire the companion volume. At the same time it would, in my opinion, have been a mistake to limit the use of the Grammar to purchasers of the Reading-Book. The Corân, whence most of its examples are derived, is accessible to everyone, and the Grammar itself has the peculiar merit of serving as an introduction to Wright's masterly work. The reader will note that Wright's second volume begins at § 1, which corresponds with $\S 401$ in Mr Thornton's abridgement.

It only remains to thank Mrs Thornton and Sir Charles Lyall, whom I consulted before writing this Preface, for the kind help which they have given me.

## REYNOLD A. NICHOLSON.

Cambridge,
July, 1905.

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## ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA.

 Sûraћ lxiv. verse 1.

§ 43, Rem. c. To ج̣́jó The reference is to Coràn, Sûrah vii. verse 134.

§45, Rem. c. For read أَهْاَنَ to obtain peace, to surrender one's self (to God) from sion peace.
§ 444, Rem. g. For Koran read Corân.

 without affecting their regimen and is then called the superfluous mat (see §353*).

## PART I.

## ORTHOGRAPHY AND ORTHOËPY.

1. Arabic is written from right to left with twenty-eight letters, all consonants; three of which, however, are also used as vowels. In modern alphabetical order they range as follows, each with the equivalent employed by Wright's Arabic Grammar: the second equivalent (if any) is from Elementary Arabic: First reading book; being easier for beginners, as Dr Wright discards digraphs, i.e. two letters for the representation of one sound.

| name | equivalent | separate | ${ }^{\text {conxected }}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | inttal | medial | final |
| ألرفّ |  | 1 |  | 1 | 1 |
| بَآكّ | b | ب | $!$ | * | $\square$ |
| \%10 | t | $\because$ | 3 | \% | $\because$ |
| \%َبَاءٌ | t, th | ث | j | $\star$ | ћ |
| קְּ | g, j | T | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | C |
| ¢6 | h | $\tau$ | $\sim$ | 二 | $\tau$ |
| \% | h, kh | $\dot{\tau}$ | $\therefore$ | $\pm$ | $\dot{\text { ̇ }}$ |
| دَانٌ | d | , |  | $\sim$ | $\cdots$ |
| ذَالٌ | d, dh | ; |  | i | i |
| \% | r | ) |  | $s$ | 5 |
| GR. |  |  |  |  | 1 |



Rem. $a$. I following $ل$ forms $\searrow$ lâm 'alif which is sometimes reckoned as a letter.

Rem. e. 1, بي , are called the weak letters.
2. The orthoëpy, i.e. correct pronunciation, of Arabic consonants is most easily acquired by learning from a Moslem to read the Corân aloud. With the exception of minute and insignificant divergencies this Corânic pronunciation is in theory identical nearly* everywhere, though in India, and probably in countries still more remote from Arabia, its distinctness has fallen off, and the sound of some letters, notably $\varepsilon$ and $\tau$, is lost. Further, the Corân's vowelling is beyond dispute; and this is of more advantage to beginners than they are at first capable of recognizing; vowel-signs exist, and are used, for purposes of grammar rather than to aid colloquial pronunciation. Slight indications only as to Corânic pronunciation can here be given, together with an explanation of the transliteration to be employed.
are pronounced as in English, but r must be trilled and h distinctly uttered, however placed: thus mahdi one led aright almost mahĭdiy, and وج̣a wash face like wajhĭ. * d $\int$ the lower teeth.

* A Turkish 'imâm will pronounce certain letters as in Turkish; thus kyâmil for lot 'sos kâmil one who is perfect.
* Dod $\dot{j}$ : em emphatisher Dentallants 1-2 den gespechen unit,


th as in thorn, thump; but th as in goatherd, lighthouse.
j is pronounced (i) $\hat{\jmath}$ as in John Jim Jack at al Azhar (the famous Cairo University), but (ii) at the mosques of Damascus, Tunis and Algiers ǰ as s in usual, measure, vision, and as $z$ in azure, and $j$ in adjoin, adjective, adjacent, bijou, and $g$ in lodge, prestige, singe. The former sound is represented by Frenchmen with dj and by Germans with dsch; if now we double $ج$ thus سَبَّارَّ a prayer-curpet, it is easy to say sajujàdaћ or sâj̧âdaћ, but not saĵĵâdaћ: the French $\mathfrak{j}$ of bijou is therefore more convenient. Turks however pronounce this letter as $\hat{\mathrm{\jmath}}$, and (iii) most Egyptians colloquially as the g of go, which last is the sound given in Hebrew.
h can only be learned by ear: beginners must use $h$ until they catch the sound.
kh has long been employed by Anglo-Indians for the final sound, harshly said, of lough, loch; gh being required for غ́يْ ghain, and ch wanted in Persian etc. for the final consonant of beach, which were best transcribed bic, i.e. with the Italian c in dolce: kh must sound as in blockhonse, thickheaded. Be it observed that $\dot{\tau}$ is not a k but an h , which cannot in Hebrew writing be distinguished from $\tau$.
dh is as th in though, thee, this; being as $\delta$ of modern Greece: but dh as in bedhangings, adhesion.
z is strictly th said far back: but usually as z pronounced with the tongue's tip pressed against the lower teeth; then
z must be sounded sharply to make a distinction.
s sounds as in kiss : Morm (quasi-mosslem) is muslim
the first syllable of which resembles that of muzzle -im neither in vowel nor consonant. If hissed with the tongue's tip s contrasts with
§ which must be pronounced further back, and with broad of tongue.
sh as in shore, wash; but sh as in mishap. For sh the French use ch and Germans sch, which last represents in Dutch $\dot{C}^{\text {U }}$ skh.
must be learnt by ear. The arrangement of throat is the same as that required for h, but without aspirate. To mimic baby camels is best of all; otherwise one must repeat words in which عَيْن 'ain occurs between two vowels, as فَعَلَ fa'ala, he did, Table 1).
gh is the sound of gargling; but gh as in foghorn with the Persian gâf, thus â gh.
q in Arabia is commonly pronounced as g in go, and so may be said at first; but the student will learn to harden g in the direction of k , and must sound
k very sharply in contrast. No one who can recite the Corân like a Moslem at mosque will confuse and 3 as do uninstructed Europeans.
n as in English, sounds mb, thus ${ }^{2}$, a pulpit, called mimbar.
 but, as these three examples show, 1 are frequently. letters of prolongation (see § 6).
$\hbar$ representing $\overline{0}$ and $\bar{\alpha}$ is sounded as $h$ when final, and as t when followed by a vowel: it is called
 mamdûdaћ stretched (see § 294 rem. b)

4. The vowels and diphthongs are as follows :-


Rem. $a$. The three Arabic words above are names of the vowel-marks, the corresponding sounds being called and ${ }_{\text {an }}^{\text {n. }}$

 a consonant when followed by a vowel is said to be مُتَحْرِكُ in motion.
5. When the Corân is recited, each letter, whatever its relative position, in theory represents the same sound; but in practice certain consonants somewhat modify adjacent vowels, for instance قق ظ ط ض ص cause â, following one of them, to be sounded like the Scandinavian $\AA$, which we represent variously in nor, saw, war, hall, wrath, ought, caught. As to the many jargons which constitute colloquial Arabic, they show divergencies too material to be learnt from any book: pronunciation of each of these spoken dialects (they are unwritten) is easy to an Englishman who can read aloud the Corânic extracts of Elementary Arabic: First reading book uttering the consonants like a Moslem at mosque; but it must be acquired by ear at the particular locality simultaneously with all eccentricities of vocabulary and grammar*.
6. The long vowels $\hat{a}, ~ \mathfrak{q}, \hat{u}$ are indicated (see § 4) by marking the corresponding short vowels before 1 , $و$, and respectively, which are then called letters of prolongation.

Rem. $a$. In certain common words $\hat{a}$ is indicated merely by fatḥaћ; as

 sily that,

[^1]

7. Fathaћ before gorms the diphthongs ai and au (see §4). Colloquial pronunciation, however, frequently gives ai as ei in vein, reign, neighbour, thus $\dot{\chi}^{\circ}$ as sheikh elder, chief, (إْتْنَانْ ithnein two.

Note. The vowel sound in vein were better represented by $\hat{e}$, whereas ai should remain a diphthong as in the French word pays (nearly) pêi in contrast to the French letter p (nearly) pê.

Rem. a. A superfluous 1 is written after $g$ at the end of certain verbal forms: it is useful in manuscript to prevent the 9 seeming separate and so being mistaken for 'g and.

Rem. b. At the end of a word $\boldsymbol{v}$ following upon fathaћ (i.e. a
 to be high scan the same. When in this position $I$ and $\mathcal{v}$ are
 they are shortened in pronunciation if followed by a connective 'alif (see § 18); thus عَلَى ívon upon God and ascended are both in pause (see § 27) pronounced 'alallâh. The interposition of hamzaћ (see § 15) prevents this waçl union,
 The 'alif maq̧̧ûrah, however written, is quiescent (see § 9 rem. $a$ ) as also are $و$ of $\dot{j}$ - au and of ai . When attached to tanwin, radical final 'alif is quiescent, thus عَصَ a stick (see § 212 b); but it is also maqçûraћ in أَلْصَا the stick.

Rem. c. If a pronominal suffix be added to a word ending in $ى$ - as we wee the is sometimes retained, but more often
 narâka we see thee.

Rem. d. Some words ending in ul â an may be written

 تَوْرِيةَ or
8. Marks of the short vowels when doubled at the end of a word (see §4) are pronounced thus = an, ₹ in, s. un, which is called تَنْوِونُ tanwinnun adding of the letter nûn.

Rem. $a$. Tanwîn of fatḥaћ takes 1 after all consonants except \%, as بَابًا gute, but drousiness (see § 308). When preceding埌 requires no las the vowel is short: thus bâban (not âu), but in pause (see § 27) bâbâ. We transliterate بَبَّ bâban̂ and سِنَّ sinaћan, but an and an are pronounced alike; except in pause, when an is not heard, whereas â̂ sounds as â. In pause sinaћan is read sinah (see end of § 2).

The following orthographic signs are also in use:
9. Sukûn rest - is placed over the final consonant of all shut syllables (see § 25).

Rem. a. A consonant which has no following vowel is called a quiescent letter (see § 4 rem. b).

Rem. b. Letters that are assimilated to a following letter, which receives in consequence tashdid (see $\S 11$ ), are retained
 language, أَرَدُّ pronounced 'arattu (see § 14 c).
10. When part of a diphthong and $و$ take sukûn, but this sign is very unusual over a 'alif maqçûraћ (see § 7 rem. b) or other letter of prolongation.
11. Tashdid strengthening w. is marked over a double consonant and the letter's repetition saved; thus بَدَّ baddala to substitute, آَتْنُّلٌ al lulu the whole.

Rem. c. Hamza (see § 15) may be doubled and take tashdid,

14. The euphonic tashdid follows a vowelless consonant, which, though expressed in writing, is passed over in pronunciation, in order to avoid a harshness of sound, and assimilated to a following consonant. It is used :-
(a) With the letters ن ل ظ ط ض ص ش س ز ر ذ د ث ت after $\bar{j}$ the (see § 345).

Rem. $a$. These letters are called
 * analogous reason all other consonants are called أْحْرُروفُ أْلْقَرِيَّةُ the lunar letters from moon.
(b) With the letters $\boldsymbol{\text { (b) }}$, after n with sukûn, as from his Lord, هِن رَّبّهِ are read mirrabbihi, kitâbummubinun. The $n$ of the words i أَنْ عَنْ هِنْ Lb, or or

Rem. b. We may write أََّّ for עَ if not ; but from what is better so written for
 (see § $353^{*}$ ).
 of the verb, as $\begin{aligned} & \text { أَرَد } I \text { I wished: this practice is, however, more }\end{aligned}$ than questionable.

Rem. b. If the verb ends in $\boldsymbol{ت}$ it naturally unites with a second ت, as نَبَّتُّ
15. Hamzaћ compression (of upper part of windpipe) \&, to which a 'alif most commonly serves as sَ' ćr 'imâd support, may almost be reckoned by Europeans as the alphabet's initial consonant. It is equivalent to the French h aspirée (which to English sense is not, except in Normandy, sounded), and it may be heard between the two words le onze and between la onzième. If our own definite article be pronounced before a vowel as before a consonant, we can only prevent liaison by employing hamzaћ; thus thö 'orange ( $\ddot{\partial}$ as e in the book). Arabs would transcribe a nice house anaishaus but an'aishaus for an ice house.

Rem. $\alpha$. When a connective 'alif (see § 18) requires vowelling, the vowel mark is better written without hamzaћ, thus ${ }^{j}$ the,


Rem. c. Hamzaћ is marked between I and sukûn or the
 and even بَسِّ grierous.

Rem. d. Hamzaћ is most perceptible in the middle of a word as أَلْقُرْآنُ the Corain.

Rem e. Hamzaћ and 'alif are called severance.
16. We have spoken in the preceding section of 'alif serving most commonly as 'imâd to hamzaћ; in certain circumstances this position may be taken by $g$ or $\boldsymbol{g}$, the latter appearing without dots (see $\$ 8131$ et seq., 238, 240, $316 d$ and $361 a$ rem.), thus促
17. Hamzaћ alone, instead of i ! ! or is written,
(a) always at a word's end, after sukîn or a letter of pro-
 and in the middle of a word after 'alif of prolongation provided the hamzaћ bears fathaћ as acc. .

 § 23 rem. $c$.
(b) frequently in the middle of words after or or pro-



 improperly placed over the letter of prolongation, as


Rem. b. Hamzaћ may under certain circumstances be chànged
into a weak letter, as on for for
 cistern,

Note. For آَمنَّا آلِكهَّ
Rem. c. The name 'رَآבُود David is always pronounced dầûd however it may be written.
18. Some Arabic words begin with connective 'alif over which is marked waçlaћ sign of union $i$, hereinafter transliterated by hyphen, because the word and its predecessor are spoken as
 and call ye upon Him.
19. Elision takes place to form the union
(a) with the vowel of $\bar{j}$ the, as يْوْر ألرِّينِ the day of the judgment.

Note. As regards ألَّنِي see § 347.
(b), in regular Imperatives of the first form, as قَالَ أْصْبٌ he said, Be patient ; instead of إصْ
(c) in certain derivatives belonging to the seventh and following forms of the verbs (see §35), as وَاْ changed; instead of انْقَلَبْوُ
 few other nouns.

Rem. c. In most of these words the 'alif and vowel are prosthetic, i.e. prefixed to a vowelless initial consonant for the sake of euphony (see $\$ 26$ ).

Rem. d. It is obviously an error to begin a sentence with $i$ : in such case the connective 'alif is written without hamzah but with a vowel, as ل山ّ لil Praise belongs to God.

Rem. $f$. Waçlaћ and 'alif are called union.
20. The connective 'alif may follow
(a) a short vowel, which then absorbs it (see § 18).
(b) a long vowel, which is then shortened in pronunciation to comply with $\$ 25$; as â l l'ardi to be read fil'arḍi
 guide us (on) the way: but the suffixes of the 1 st pers. sing. - and may assume before the article the older forms

 my signs those who.
(c) a diphthong, which usually is resolved into two simple
 أْتَّأْكِيد the pronoun of corroboration (see §530).
(d) sukûn over a consonant, which then most usually takes
 (sometimes written اُلنَّبَّ


 verbal termination ${ }^{\circ}$ تُمْ take dammat (in which they originally


رُ رُنْ from (see § 448) takes fathaћ before the article and elsewhere kasraћ.

Rem. $a$. When ó becomes (see § 185 rem. $b$ ) the waçl may be made with ḍammaћ of or kasraћ or or
21. The $i$ is altogether omitted
 nume of God, which by way of compensation is written
(b) from ابْنُ in a genealogical series, with certain exceptions.
(c) from $\bar{j}$ í the preceded by لِ to (see § $356 c$ ) as to

 omitted, thus ${ }^{\text {th }}$ to God for
(d) from words preceded by the interrogative particle $\bar{i}^{i}$ (see § $361 a$ ).
22. Maddaћ extension $\simeq$ does not admit of transliteration, being either superfluous or an abbreviation or marking an abbreviation. Thus it is customary to omit 'alif which, with hamzaћ and a vowel or tanwîn, follows a 'alif of prolongation; then by way of compensation madda $\hbar$ is written over the remaining 'alif, as سَآَئرّ one who asks for أَأْدْاَأَكُمْ
23. Maddaћ and 'alif $i$ also represent a 'alif with hamzaћ and fathaћ followed by 'alif of prolongation 1 II or by 'alif with

年

Rem．c．Maddaћ is sometimes placed over 9 and ي of pro－

 be upon the letter of prolongation．＊

Rem．$d$ ．The same，mark $\simeq$ is written over abbreviations，as亮 for or or its end ie．etccetera（see §451c）． ＊also before sunnapliono ।


24．An open syllable ends with a long or short vowel．
25．A shut syllable ends with a consonant，and its vowel is most commonly short．

26．A syllable cannot begin with two consonants：foreign words commencing so are transcribed by Arabian grammarians with an additional vowel，thus franks becomes إِفْرَنْ Europeans pronounced colloquially faranj or farang．

27 A syllable cannot end with two consonants，except ，بِأْوْقْغ bi ll waqfi in pause，which ought to be made only when required by sense，but which is really more frequent；as si وَلَّ g（compare Elementary Arabic：First reading book， page rv，top line）to Him belong the dominion and the praise， witness also the Moslem credo phonetically written as pronounced
 wamuhammadurrasûlullâh There is no god but God and Muhum－ mad is His apostle．In the Urdu translation of this book－will mark the shortest pause then，one of medium length and ．as in English the longest．

Note．Professor de Goeje appends to vol ii § $95 f$ of Wright＇s Grammar an instructive footnote condemning pedantic speech，
and he gives reference to a MS at Leyden. In fact case-endings area nearly always dropped in أَسَّارِ ar al dârij current speech: throughout Arabia the proper name إبْنُ رَشِيدٍ is pronounced ibrrashid by Badawîn (Bedouins). The accusative is most often heard, as ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ marhabañ (see $\S 435$ b) welcome pronounced in pause marḥabâ (see § 8 rem. $\alpha$ ).
28. The accent will not occasion difficulty to Englishmen who acquire pronunciation of Arabic consonants by reading the Corân aloud after a Moslem: it is designed to ensure gram-
 reading book, page ir bottom line) is pronounced yusabbíhu for fear of saying yusábbihû. Colloquial accentuation differs with the locality ; thus muçtafa -llâhi chosen of God is múçtafa in Syria, and in Egypt muçtáfa or even muçtâfa.
32. Numbers were anciently expressed by letters whose numerical value may be learnt in the following order أَبْجَ ; حُطِي كَكَهَنْ سَعْفَصْ قَرَشَتْ ثَخَذْ ضَظَغْ the last two words, being supplementary to the Hebrew and Aramaic alphabets. Between the analysis and text of Elementary Arabic: First reading book will be found a Table, which gives the Phoenician, modern Hebrew, and other alphabets. The Arabic figures now employed are

$$
\begin{array}{llllllllll}
1 & r & \mu & < & 0 & y & \vee & \wedge & 9 & \dot{~} \\
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 0
\end{array}
$$

and they are used in our order, thus $0 . \operatorname{Tr} \wedge 9506389$.

## PART II.

## ETYMOLOGY OR THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

33. Verbs are mostly triliteral (containing three radical letters) but some are quadriliteral.
34. From the first or ground-form are derived other forms expressing modifications of the idea conveyed by the first (see § 369 Table 3 et seq.).
35. The forms of the triliteral verb are fifteen, as follows :

|  | x | إنْفَعَلَ |  | فَ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | إْعْعَلَّ | 广年 | تَفَّعَلَ | فَّ |
|  |  | إفْعَلَّ | تَغَاءَلْ VI | فَاءِ |

Rem. $a$. The 3rd pers. sing. masc. Perf. active, being the simplest form of the verb, is used as paradigm, but for shortness' sake we translate it by the English infinitive ; thus to wound instead of he has wounded.

Rem. b. Arabian grammarians use the verb $\begin{aligned} & \text { فَع } \\ & \text { as } \\ & \text { ar padigm; }\end{aligned}$


36. The first form is generally transitive or intransitive in signification, according to the vowel which accompanies its second radical.
37. The second radical's vowel is $a$ in most transitive verbs, as ضَرْبَ to beat ; and some intransitive, as رَشَ the right way.
38. Vowel $i$ in similar position usually shows an intransitive signification, $u$ invariably : the $i$ indicating what is temporary or accidental, as سَكِّر to be safe; whilst $u$ (meaning rarely to become what one was not before, as شَرْف to become noble) indicates a permanent state or inherent quality, as "حْ to be beautiful.

Rem. $a$. Many verbs of the form فَ فَعْلَ are transitive according to our ideas.

Note. The following sections give a general view of some derived forms without taking into account whether the verbs govern an accusative, or by help of prepositions a dependent (see § 423).
40. The second form فَ فَعَّ is in meaning intensive or extensive. Originally it implies an act done with force, during long, by a number, or repeatedly; as wo mock to subject, treat as abject, صَرَفَ صَرَفَ to turn, shift the same but of several objects, صَلَبَ to crucify صَلَّبَ the same of many, فَصَّ صرَّ to separate قَصَّلَ to divide into several pieces, قَتَّلَ to massacre,

 hold tight.
41. Not less usual is the secondary signification, (a) verbs intransitive in the first form becoming transitive in the second; as أَدُبَ to be well brought up أَدَّبَ to bestow a good education, punish, تَبَّر to perish تَبَّر to destroy, حَرْرَ to be unlawful حَرَّر to

 نَبَّتَتَ to spring forth plant or sow, and
(b) those transitive in the first, causative; as بَتَّغَ to reach,
攵 to make pass and to give a verb a transitive signification,
 قَرَّرَّبَ to to bring near.

Rem. $b$. This form is often declarative or estimative, as صَدَّدَقَ to to thell the truth that one tells the truth, believe one, كَذَّبَ to to call one a liar, فَذَبَ to surpass فَضَّلَ to regard as superior, favour.

Rem. c. This form is very frequently denominative, i.e. derived from a noun; as بَدَّ to substitute from بَدَّ something
 (peace be upon thee), صَوَّر to fashion from an image, صُورَةٌ to shade from ظِّلّ shadow, كَّلَّه speech,
 has emerged or arisen), نَوَّنَ to write the letter nûn from $n$ نُونّ
 swim: accordingly the native grammarians call denomi-
 generally means he disciplined, chastized, constrained by punishment) in the exceptional sense he helped may possibly be a denominative from the Hebrew 'ezer help (see I Samuel vii. 12). The noun does not occur in Arabic with that signification.
43. The third form فَاءَ implies
(a) the effort or attempt to perform an act which the first form denotes as immediately affecting an object, the idea of reciprocity being sometimes added; as ć to receive عَاطَا receive from each other, give mutually, غَ'َبَ to overcome to try to overcome, قَرَارَأَاًً to read to read together, teach mutually,
 contend in pulling, وَوَهَد to promise to fix time and place for execution of a promise.
(b) This form sometimes governs directly, not without the idea of reciprocity, when the first or fourth form governs its object by help of a preposition, as أُرسْنَ إِّى أُسُّلْطَانِ he sent (a message) to the Sultan رَاسَرَ أسُّْنُطَانَ he interchanged messages, corresponded, with the Sultan, aُ قَالَ he said to him something قَاوَلَهُ he conversed with him.
(c) When the first form denotes a quality or state (see § 75) فَاعَلَ indicates affecting a person by the quality or bringing him into the state, as حَسْنَ to be good or kind he treated him kindly, طَاعَ to be submissive طَاوَع to comply with, نَعَعْ to lead a comfortable life ${ }_{\text {ásós }}$ he found him means of doing so.

Rem. $a$. This form is sometimes denominative, as ضَفَأَفَا to double, multiply from ضِعْفَ the like or equal.

Rem. c. In Elementary Arabic: First reading book page IF bottom line بَاوزنَنا بِ may be rendered We caused to pass (see § 456 b).

Note. The form of the verb بَارَك he blessed may be due to Hebrew, from which it is most probably derived (see $\S 455$ Note).
45. The fourth form in in factitive or causative, (a) verbs intransitive in the first form becoming transitive; as أَتَى أَ
 grieve آَسَفَ to make grieve, تَّمَّ to be finished أَّتَّ to be an object of love حَبْبَ


 to rejoice at another's trouble to make so to rejoice, أَشْهَتْتَ صَنَّ to be good أَهْتَ to make good, do good, follow right action, ضَّحَ to err







 disavow,
(b) Verbs transitive in the first form become doubly transi-
 encompass, comprehend, َذَلَ to go into أَدْخَلَ to cause to enter, he saw the thing رَأَى لأشَّيْءْ


## 

§ 45]
A GRAMMAR.

 teach reading or reciting, لَقِيَ to meet to throw, أَلْقَى to to extend

 وقَّى to guard أَوْقَى to make to guard.

Rem. $a$. When both the second and fourth forms of a verb are causative they have in some cases different significations, in others the same; as أَذِنَ to give ear to آَذْ to cause



Rem. $b$. The fourth form, like the second, is sometimes declarative or estimative; as آَ آَنْ to be faithful find


 حَحْـنَ





 leisurely. acting. There is another class of denominatives, as to become plain from بَبِّنَ to evident, أَبَّنَ

[^2]
獣 to find a place, become possible from a place; and somewhat analogous is أَيْرَ to arrive at ease from one easy.

Note. Beside the above must be mentioned أَرَارَ to wish which cannot be immediately derived from رَار to go to and fro; أَأَاَرَ to indicate, point out from أَصَابَ ; to direct the course of something expressly at, hit the mark whence the commoner meaning to overtake, befall from صَابَ to rush down as water; recover from illness or a swoon from فَقَ to be above; ; as light, carry easily from قَقَّ قَّ which means in Hebrew to be light
 both meaning to inspire, suggest; and أَيْقَنَن to make sure from يَقِنَ which means the same but is very unusual.
47. The fifth form تَفَعَّ is reflexive of the second, being (as are the next following forms) called ${ }^{2}$ عُ مُ a verb the grammatical agent of which complies with, i.e. receives the effect of, the action of the verb to which it is reflexive; as أَنَّنَ to


 become chief, 'تَيَّ omen concerning oneself as from the flight of birds, قَّوَّ to cause to say, to make out that a man said so and so to make out falsely that a man said so and so with a view to one's own
 تَكَّفَى to to pay in full تَلَّلَّ and of God to take to Himself, وُوَّ to make someone else to be one's wakil, i.e. a person left alone, an agent تَوَوَّ to trust oneself to an agent who is fully empowered to act on one's behalf, تَوَّىَى أْلْمَمْرْ he took charge of the matter himself.

Rem. b. Some of Professor Wright's examples in § 47 are
 In case of تَضَرَّعَ to make humble supplication, earnestness is denoted by the doubled middle radical and self-advantage by the prefixed $ت$ in comparison with ضَرْ to be humble. Further we observe لَقِفَ he caught up, swallowed what was cast to him ْ تَلَقَّفَ تُسْ similar in sense to but with the idea added of taking for one's own advantage: while تَيَّهَّ to stretch oneself is reflexive of the first form oَ to extend. We find also to be near or
 aside.
48. By way of secondary meaning we have the effective, i.e. expressing effect, as بَبَّنَ to make distinct to appear clear, عَدَّى to give a verb a transitive signification تَنَّنَّى to be transitive.
50. The sixth form تَفَاءَ is connected with the third: it is reflexive, and frequently simulative especially when the ground form is intransitive, thus تَبَآَسَس to feign poverty from بِسْس to be poor. Also we find $\begin{gathered}\text { تَخَا } \\ \text { تَ wrongly to attribute error to oneself }\end{gathered}$
which is reflexive and intensive of $\begin{aligned} & \text { Fَخَّ } \\ & \text { تَ } \\ & \text { to impute error to }\end{aligned}$ another, from ' خَطْى to do wrong. More often it is reciprocal,
 تَايَر to accompany to travel in company, كَايَر to help

 make تَ تَهَّهَّ

Rem. $a$. When used of God تَتَبَارَّ reflexive force of this form : تَبَازَك آللّهُ God has made Himself most blessed, , تَتَآَى God has exalted Himself above all, see $\S 401 \mathrm{rem}$.

Rem. c. This form is appropriate to actions that take place bit by bit, as

Nотт. From غَ غَبَنَ غَنَ to cheat (should mean if it existed) of two persons that one cheated the other and تَغَابَن means of many that they cheated one another whence تَغَابُن general deception, see § 202.
52. The seventh form reflexive of the first, and approaches to a passive, being sometimes effective, as بَجْسَ to make flow إنْبَجْ to gush, to
 to skin الْسَبَأَ
 or to change, invert to be changed, translated as by death.
53. This form may imply that a person allows of an act being done to himself, as to drag بَزَّ إْجَّرَ to let oneself be dragged.

Note. We employ الْ إْبَأَثَ to split itself as paradigm, though the word is little known.
55. The eighth form الْتْتَلَ is reflexive of the first ; the reflex


 oneself, fear, ò
(b) the indirect object, implying for one's own advantage, as أَيتَجِرَ to give alms seeking a reward, أَجِر good إِذْتَا be even with, equal to إسْتَوْى to settle oneself, become firm, صَفَا to be pure and clear إْْطَغَى to take to oneself that which is pure and clear, عَدَا to go beyond and leave behind to do so for one's own evil ends, transgress consciously, فَرْى to cut out, manufacture إْتْتَى⿵ to do so for one's own evil purpose, forge lies, to punish 'أْنْتَقَىَ a slain beast.
56. Occasionally, like the sixth form, it is reciprocal, as

57. Sometimes we find it passive, especially in verbs wanting the seventh form (see § 113), as وَوَ to admonish to be admonished; also هَذَى to direct to be directed aright, which however may mean to find true direction.

Rem. $a$. In many verbs this form agrees nearly in meaning



Note. We find also to be poor بَّسْسَ to abase oneself.
59. The ninth form إْفْعَّ express colours or defects, being indistinguishable in sense; thus إْمَفَّرَّ
61. The tenth form
 one's own advantage, أَرْهَبَ
 (ie. to obey oneself), ، أَغْنْهُ to make rich
 make stand upright إِنْتَامَر to hold oneself upright.
62. This form may indicate a belief that some thing or person possesses the quality expressed by the first, as شُ شُّْ


 puffed up with pride.
63. This form very frequently means asking or seeking what is indicated by the first, as أَذَنَ to give permission إنَّ permission, سَقَى to give drink pardon
首 to look for its coming to pass.
 from الْ أْتَخْلَفَ to appoint as successor, deputy or caliph from خَلْفَّ successor.
 and nearly corresponds with يَسَر ; while أْتَعَعانَ be derived from أَعَانَ to help or, better still, called a denominative of ${ }^{50}$ عَو help.
66. The remaining forms of the triliteral verb need not be noticed here, as they do not occur in Elementary Arabic: First reading book.
67. Quadriliteral verbs are formed (a) by repeating a biliteral root, as غَرْغَ and ${ }^{2}$ جَلْمَ to shave the head; (c) as denominatives from nouns, often foreign, thus جَوْرَبْ to put on $\operatorname{\text {جَورْبَ}5\text {stockings;or(d)from}}$

68. There are three derived forms of the quadriliteral verb, which are conjugated in the paradigms (Table IV) of Wright's Grammar, viz.

73. Nearly all verbal forms, primitive or derivative, have two voices, the active and the passive; but we must often translate the latter impersonally, as ${ }^{\text {in }}$ a dragging took place

筩 one points to them, a falling took place (or, an onslaught was made) upon their hands, i.e. they bit their fingers for disappointment (see § 533).
75. We speak of neuter verbs, meaning those which express a state or condition and therefore have no passive voice, as حُ to be wise, but Arabian grammarians reckon them as active, distinguishing between
 that are confined to the subject.
77. An Arabic verb has two States, the Perfect indicating a finished act, and the Imperfect an act that is just commencing or in progress.

Rem. a. Acquaintance with grammar will teach how to employ these States in explaining the temporal relations (past, present, and future) which non-semitic languages express by tenses.
79. There are five moods : the Indicative which is common to the perfect and imperfect states; the Subjunctive, and Jussive (or Conditional) which are restricted to the imperfect; the Imperative which is expressed by a special form; and the Energetic which can be derived from the imperfect and from the imperative.
80. By way of Infinitives we have nomina actionis nouns expressing the action or quality (see $\S 195$ ). In place of participles two verbal adjectives are used; nomen agentis denoting the agent, and nomen patientis the patient (see § 229).
81. There are three numbers, Singular, Dual, and Plural ; likewise three persons. The genders are two, Masculine and Feminine ; but distinction cannot in all cases be made, as أَقُولُ I say, where the speaker's sex is not disclosed.
83. Verbs are called strong when the three radical letters are retained throughout and undergo no change.

Rem. To contain $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}$ or causes a verb to be called weak (see § 126); but verbs in which the second and third radicals are identical (see § 120) we shall call strong.

Note. Students must spare no pains to learn the conjugations in §369 Tables 1, 2 and 3 ; otherwise they will find the weak verbs difficult to impossibility.
84. The numbers, persons, and genders of the verbs are expressed by means of personal pronouns, annexed to the various moods and states. These may be connected, i.e. prefixed or suffixed, in which case they are to be learned from the conjugations ; thus we in wounded, ئ يُكْفُرُ he wounds (see § 369 T'able 1)*: or they may be separate.
89. The following table gives such separate personal pronouns as express the nominative:-

Singular.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| هِ she | - . . | \%\% he | 3rd person |
| 睢 thou | . . . | Eifou | 2nd |
| - . . . |  |  | 1st |



| Dual |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| - • • - | 促 they two | - • . | 3rd person |
| . . . . |  | . . | 2nd " |

Plural

## هُ they

 أَنْنَّنَó they 3rd 2nd

1st

Rem. c. For the older forms soó and see $£ 20 \mathrm{~d}$.
Note. In § 185 are given pronominal suffixes expressing the accusative, and those expressing the dependent in § 317 .
90. Regarding first the active voice we observe that the 3rd pers. sing. masc. perfect of the ground form bears fathaћ always on the first and third radicals.
91. When the middle radical of the perfect has fathat a verb must take either dammaћ or kasraћ in the imperfect; as بَّبَ to be worthless to strike يَرْبَ , بَطَبَ



 Many verbs admit of both forms; as 'رَسَ to study, يَ
 bath, and

Rem. $a$. Verbs of which the second or third radical is a guttural (either i, خ', $\dot{\mathcal{C}}, \dot{\varepsilon}$, or o) may be exceptional ; as - بَعْتَ - رَأَسَ - to be driven away the head of, to swim, شَسَعَ - to fascinate, enchant, intercede, = to strike with lightning, صَعْقَ

 water to flow,


 فَ فَرِغ فَ to be vacant.

Note. As paradigm we use فَرْ
92. When the second radical of the perfect has kasraћ, the imperfect bears fathaћ ; as to sin, to be vain, - to do wrong, sin, to fear, رَهِبَ - to to be light-
 swoon,

 poverty, which usually makes يَهْوَو but sometimes يَهِّيتُ or يَهَاتُ
93. When the middle radical of the perfect has dammar the imperfect bears the same, as to see, بَصْرَ to be bad, GR.
$34^{2}$ ELEMENTARY ARABIC: [§95
 صـ صَغْرْ نَ
95. The indicative of the imperfect is distinguished by dammaћ on the third radical, as يَجْهَ he is ignorant; the sub-

96. A termination $\dot{\mathcal{U}}$ of the indicative is only retained in the subjunctive and jussive when required as mark of gender; otherwise it and $\dot{j}$ are rejected.
97. The energetics are formed from the jussive by adding - or $\dot{\sim}$ - (subject to certain variations, which in case of Energetic I of the imperfect may be learnt from the paradigms in § 369) thus, يَبْعَنَّنَّ .بَعَثَ. Energetic II of the imperfect and the two energetics of the imperative are omitted from $\S 369$ as they do not occur in Elementary Arabic: First reading book.
98. The imperative is formed by substituting a prosthetic vowel for the prefix of the jussive's 2nd sing. : when the second radical bears fathaћ or kasraћ this vowel is kasraћ, and when

 and similarly with the feminine etc.

Rem $a$. Concerning prosthetic vowels see § 19, rem. $c$.
Rem. b. Fathâ is never so employed.
100. From the active voice the passive is distinguished by altered vowels (see § 369, Table 2) on the first and second radicals.

Rem. It makes no difference what characteristic vowels are employed in the active voice.
101. Instead of a passive imperative the jussive is used.
102. The derived forms of strong verbs must be learned from § 369, Table 3; attention being at an early stage confined to the first seven and the tenth form, i.e. neglecting the ninth, eleventh and following.
107. The relation of passive to active will be found analogous to that in the ground form.

Rem. $\alpha$. The imperfect passive of the first and fourth forms are identical in appearance.
111. When the verbal root begins with $\boldsymbol{\Xi}, \boldsymbol{ث}, \mathfrak{C}, \mathbf{j}, \mathfrak{j}$,
 sixth forms may lose its vowel and form a double letter with the first radical, to which when necessary a prosthetic 'alif and kasraћ must be added; as إِطَّيَر يَطَّيَّرُ to draw an omen concerning
 تَسَاقَطَطْ يَتَسَاقَطُ
112. The $\check{=}$ of the fifth and sixth forms is sometimes omitted from those persons of the imperfect active to which


115. If the first radical be $\boldsymbol{ت}$ or , characteristic $\boldsymbol{ت}$ of the eighth form unites with the initial into $\stackrel{ت}{ت}$ and with initial $ث$

117. If the first radical be $\boldsymbol{\omega}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, \boldsymbol{b}$ or $\dot{\boldsymbol{b}}$, characteristic $=$ is changed into b; as إِْنَفَنْتُ I I chose from (see § 55) and not اصْتَفَيْتُ
120. Verbs with the middle radical doubled are conjugated in $\S 369$, Tables $5 a, b$ and $c$ : they differ from other strong verbs in two ways.
(a) When both the initial and final radicals have vowels the middle rejects its vowel and becomes with the final a double
 to put down, pound,

(b) If the initial radical is without a vowel and the final has one, then the middle radical throws its vowel to the initial and becomes with the final a double letter; as يَدُّلُّ , يَنْرِرِ


 and lo become loved which makes حَبْبْتِ an ar y مَسِسْتُ
121. The jussive is sometimes identical with the subjunctive as يَيْمْرْ for يَمْدَ
124. In some derived forms will be found alternative vocalization : this is common when the doubled radical follows

126. Verbs are called watk when one of the three radical letters is subject to transformation or rejection.
128. Verbs with $و$ or for a radical are unmistakeably weak, more so than those called hamzated.
129. Verbs may be doubly weak (§171): and even trebly, as أَأَوْى - to resort to imperf. يَأَوِيو impera
130. Hamzated verbs fall into three classes according as hamza serves for first, second or third radical : they are conjugated in §369, Tables 6 to 8, differing from strong verbs especially as regards the 'imâd (see § 15) in the following ways.
131. The 'alif with hamzaћ and sukûn í preceded by ḍamma $\hbar$
 ْ, as خَ خَطِّنْ I have done wrong not
132. It is said by some that $g$ and represent sounds towards which hamzat is inclined by the preceding vowel.

Ren. b. Instances occur like أُؤِذينَا we were hurt for أُؤْرِينَا
 in imperatives following ${ }^{\prime}$ g or فَ the connective 'alif is rejected while hamzaћ with sukûn remains; thus فَأْتُ so then come.
 be brave not بَبَّسَ to be in distress not بَبِّسَ ;

 as سُسِّاً (passive) he was asked not سُالَ

Rem. At the end of a word $\tilde{q}^{\mathbf{I}}$ يْرْرأُ he reads but يَقْرَوْرُ he reads it.
134. When preceded by a consonant with sukûn $I$ í becomes $\frac{\dot{g}}{\text { g. }}$,


135. If 'alif of prolongation follows radical $\bar{i}$ at a word's beginning we write $\tilde{I}_{\text {or }}$ or or even $\tilde{I}_{\infty}$ (see § 23) as io to consult
 grieve for أَأَسْفَ
137. The verbs أَخَذ to to to to comane and كَ to eat make in the imperative
138. The imperative may when following ó recover
 وَكُكُلْ ,وَخْنْ
139. In the eighth form of $\overline{\text { أَ }}$ the first radical becomes assimilated to $\boldsymbol{ت}$, thus to take for oneself : this occurs with a few other verbs, but آَتَّجَر from freward is less common than إِيتَجَرَ which follows § 132, rem. b.
140. Loss of hamzaћ occasionally takes place and we have for سَانَ يَسارَ ferred, as su
141. Weak verbs specially so called likewise fall into three classes according as $و$ or is the first, the second, or the third radical.
142. Verbs with $و$ as initial radical (see $\S 369$, Table 9) which have kasraћ for characteristic vowel of the imperfect and imperative, reject g in those forms. Thus gl ولَ to bear children





Rem. $a$. A few verbs, having (contrary to § 92 ) kasraћ in both perfect and imperfect, lose their initial radical, as وَقَقَ go

143. But verbs with $g$ as initial radical, which have fathat or dammar for characteristic vowel of the imperfect and imperalive, retain in those forms ; as وَسِنَن to doze imperf. يَوْنَ,

 الْوْجَرْ
144. In certain verbs initial $و$ drops from the imperfect and imperative notwithstanding that fathaћ is the characteristic

 to fall يَقَعْ

REM. b. وذر is not used in the perfect.
145. If initial ge vowelless, a preceding kasrāћ or ḍammaћ changes it into و of prolongation as may be seen in § 143 with the imperatives of وَجْرَ وَبْلَ وَسِنَ and
146. Verbs with as initial radical are inflected almost like strong verbs, thus يَسرَ يَيْسِر (see § 369, Table 9).
147. But if initial be vowelless, a preceding kasraћ or dammaћ changes it into S or prolongation; thus the imperative of form is أَيْرَ يُوسِرُ to arrive at ease.
148. In the eighth form $و$ and are assimilated to the characteristic $ت$, thus producing إتَّعَى , to fear for of which the nomen agentis is devout.
149. Verbs with $و$ or as middle radical are conjugated in § 369, Tables 10 to 13 : they differ from strong verbs only in the first, fourth, seventh, eighth and tenth forms.
150. In case the initial radical is without a vowel and the final has one, the vowel of the middle radical passes to the first and we employ a letter of prolongation homogeneous with the vowel which the first radical has now assumed; thus


" do. أَضْيْعَغ


" يَسْتْطْطْبُ يَسْتَغْعِل
151. But if the final radical has sukûn, the long vowels 1 - $\hat{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{K}$ - $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{g}$ 二 u become short, according to $\S 25$; thus



Rem. يَكُنُونْ jussive of for further abbreviated into يَيكُ, see § 583 c.

Note. We have يُكُونَّنَ he will certainly be from يُكُنْ §97) jussive of reappear in obedience to $\S$ 150. So in the plural, thus ii تَخَافُوا fear ye not.
152. It follows that the first form's imperative needs no prosthetic 'alif; thus
with form اُكُونْ أْفْعُن becomes to be
" صَارَ 1 , to become
153. If three open syllables follow in immediate succession, the first of which has fathaћ, then 'alif of prolongation takes the middle radical's place ; thus



"

" يَخْتَيْر يَفْتَعِلُ viIi,, يَخْتَارُ " to be good
154. But if the first syllable's vowel be dammar, and $\boldsymbol{g}$ or ي bear kassa, we discard dammar, taking kassa into its place, and adopt of prolongation instead of the middle radical ; as

155. If the first radical has fathatì and the third sukûn, three cases arise.
(a) The middle radical is $و$ or with fathat ; when we discard it and its vowel, placing, if it was 9 , ḍamma $\hbar$ on the first radical, and kasraћ if it was : thus
with form قُوْهْتَ فَعَلْتَ becomes قُهْتَ from to stand
(b) The middle radical is و with dammaћ or 2 with kasraћ; when we discard it and its vowel, but we place a vowel homogeneous with it upon the first radical: as
with form طَوْلْتَ فَعُلْتَ becomes طُلْتَ from to be long " "نَلْتْتَ
(c) The middle radical is 9 with kasraћ; when we discard it and its vowel, placing kasrat on the first radical: as


156. In certain passive forms the of prolongation is shortened into kasraћ, when the third radical bears sukûn; thus
 in form with
157. Most verbs with $و$ as middle radical take damma $\hbar$ in the imperfect, and most with take kasraћ ; but some of the form


خَوِفَ " to fear


يَهْوَفُ ," يَـَافُ


#  <br>  

We have mentioned (§ 92, rem.) ©َا for for to die.
164. Verbs with $و$ or as final radical are conjugated in § 369, Tables 14 to 18 : they are of five kinds :-

165. One of three things must happen: the final radical retains its consonantal power, or resolves itself into a vowel, or is elided.
166. At the begiming of a syllable two things are possible.
(a) The third radical maintains its power as a consonant,
in وَ awâ as

, وَ بـ uwa ," يُبْلْوَ he may try

" <- iya " عَهِئي he was blind
" يَيا " iyâ "
also when following sukûn, as عَدْ a transgressing, رِضْوَ grace,


 and the like in verbs with g or o as middle radical.
(b) The third radical is elided between a short vowel and î or $\hat{u}$ : this involves contraction
(i) either into a long vowel; namely

يُ iyû , , يُجْروْنَ , they (masc.) flow
 تَرْجُوِينَ ,

(ii) or into a diphthong; namely
 نَيْيَوْا "

167. At the end of a syllable the third radical is either (a) vocalized or (b) elided, whether (i) it stands there naturally as in خَفِيتُ I was hidden, or (ii) after losing a short vowel as in يَخْفَيْ
a. (i) It is vocalized when naturally so placed, as follows:
(a) if the preceding vowel be homogeneous


(b) if the preceding vowel be heterogeneous
(ii) It is vocalized if so placed by loss of a short vowel, thus ¿- aw becomes 1 - at as for


بـيعدو ,

b. (i) It is elided when naturally so placed in the imperative and jussive, thus
يَدْعُو for يَدْعُ and (ُرْعُو



(ii) It is elided when so placed in the nomina agentis (see § 80) before tanwîn of dammar and kassa, which vowels disappear, while the tanwin passes back to kassa of the second radical ; thus


.So with all the first eight forms and tenth (see $\$ \$ 236,311$ ).

Note. The distinction in $a$ (ii) between the final syllables of علو for (see § 7, rem. b).
169. Final $و$ becomes $v$ in all derived forms of the verb,
 viII اِعتَدَى
170. To form the nomen patientis هَغْعُولُ of these verbs, radical و of prolongation, as struck with
 g of prolongation into and the two coalesce, with kasraћ preceding instead of dammaћ, as ${ }_{\text {s. }}^{\text {s. }}$ one led aright for

171. Doubly weak verbs are of two classes : first those with both hamzaћ and or among their radicals; and second those in which or orcurs twice or which contain 9 و and
172. Of the first class there are three sorts, each admitting two varieties according to the position of hamzaћ.
(i) Hamzated verbs with initial وي
(ii) middle or or
(iii)
" final و or
173. In sort (i) hamzaћ serves as middle or final radical, and such verbs are inflected like both classes to which they belong.
174. In sort (ii) hamzaћ serves (a) for initial radical, as



شَشَاَة for to wish. The following table shows such verbs inflected like both classes to which they belong.

|  | $a$ |  | $b$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf. sing. 3rd masc. | \% |  | جِا | شَآء |
| " " 2nd " | أَدْتِ | سُؤْتِ |  | شِّنَ |
| Imperf. indic. | يَؤُودِ | يَّوٌ\% |  | يَشَآبٌ |
| Imperative | أُ | سُؤٌ | جֵئ | شَأْ |
| Passive perfect | إِيَ | سِيّ | جِيء | شِيْعِ |


175. In sort (iii) hamzaћ serves (a) for initial radical, as نَنَّى to come, أَّنَى to be hurt; and (b) for middle radical, as to be far: such verbs are inflected like both classes to which they belong, thus

 see $\$ 132$, rem. $b$.
176. From certain parts of hamzated 'alif may be elided : as (indic. and subj.) تَرْیَ نَرْى thou (masc.) seest, see; (subj. and juss.) يُروْا they (masc.) see ; but (perf.) وأَيْتُ I saw, رأَوْا رأْا they (masc.) saw.

Rem. c. Radical hamzated 'alif is elided from the fourth form when meaning to show, as أَأَرِي show thou (masc.),
177. Of the second class (see § 171) there are two sorts.
178. In sort (i) وَقَى or is the initial and final radical, as to guard, وَفَى to be faithful to one's engagement, وَكِي to be near (see § 142, rem. $a$ ) ; and such verbs are inflected like both classes to which they belong, thus

Perf. sing. 3rd masc.


Imperf. indic.
Imperative


ق




J
179. In sort (ii) g or v is the middle and final radical, as
 to, no change : thus

Perf. sing. 3rd masc.
$" \quad " \quad$ fem.
$" \quad, \quad$ 2nd masc.

Imperf. indic.
Imperative


GR.

Rem．$a$ ．We write from（الْ John the Baptist and to prevent the union of two ي


182．The verb لَيْس he is not has no imperfect or imperative； its perfect is inflected like verbs with for middle radical；thus

| 1st <br> لَهْتٌ | 2nd f． <br> تَسْت | 2nd m． تَ |  | 3rd m． <br> لَّ0ْ | Sing． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | لَسْتٌ |  |  | Dual |
| لَسْنَ｜ | لَسْتُنَّ |  | كَّنْ | كَّ | Plur． |

We may perhaps call لَيْسَ a substantive verb，because it implies non－existence without connotation of time or change；it is mentioned in $\S \S 442,559,560$ and 587 d ．

Ren．$a$ ．لَيْسَ is compounded of yot no and the obsolete or أَيْسَ existence，being；as may be learned in studying Hebrew， Aramaic，and Assyrian．

183．The verbs of praise and blame are io to be good and بِ⿱丷⿱一⿱㇒⿴囗⿱一一⿰丨丨一⿻冂土寸 to be bad：they are exclamatory，and when a nominative follows，it must be defined，as as بِّنْسْ أْلْصَصْ a bad issue is that ！

Rem．$a$ ．The verb may be joined to following conjunctive Li， as evil have ye wrought in mine absence．

185．We give here a table of the pronominal suffixes which follow verbs in order to express the accusative，the nominative pronouns having been mentioned in $\S 89$ ．

## Singular.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| to her | . . - | - him | 3rd | person |
| s) thee |  | s) thee | 2nd | , |
| - • . | نك me |  | 1st | " |

Dual.

| OB them both | . . | 3 rd |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| " |  |  |

Plural.


| OO them | 3 rd |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\bigcirc$ | 2nd |

نَ us
Rem. a. For the dependent case, see § 317.
Rem. b. The ḍammaћ of $\circ$,, 0 , هُمْ



186. An accusative suffix causes change to its verb when
(a) the word ends with a superfluous 'alif (see § 7, rem. a) which is elided, thus 1 beware of them.
(b) To avoid cacophony we retain in the Perf. pl. 2nd masc. و- $\hat{u}$ which the language employed at an earlier stage, thus

(e) As mentioned in § 7 rem. $c$ -
188. Sometimes the pronominal object is expressed by a suffix attached to the word 'إِيَّ 'iyâ, which cannot stand alone; thus إِيَّاكِ thee, but the 1st sing. is إَِّّي me.
189. A pronominal suffix with إِّيَّ is used,
(a) if one desires to avoid attaching two suffixes to the same
 repetition of the governing verb when a pronoun is coupled by g' and (see § 578) with a substantive or with a pronominal suffix, as and me:
(b) when a pronoun is, for the sake of emphasis, placed before the verb; as إِيَّاكَ نَبْبُد وَإِيَّاكَ نَسْتِعِينُ Thee only do we worship and to Thee alone we cry for help (see § 431 rem.).

Arabian grammarians divide parts of speech into three;
 (c)

(i) The nomen substantivum more especially called ألأِصْ as well as أَلْمَوْصُوفُ الْمَنْعُوتُ $q$ qualificabile: to it adjectives can be attached. This when deverbal we shall call nomen verbi and treat in $\S 195$ et seq.
(ii) The adjective, or descriptive epithet.
(iii) The numeral, or noun of number.
(iv) The demonstrative pronoun, or noun of indication.
(v) The conjunctive pronoun.
(vi) The personal pronoun, or substitute for a thing or person not mentioned.

Rem. a. Nouns substantive and adjective must be treated together, they being in form almost identical. We give (iii) numerals in $\S \$ 318$ to 328 ; (iv and v) demonstrative, conjunctive, and interrogative pronouns in $\S \S 340$ to $353^{*}$ : the (vi) personal pronouns, which have been treated in $\delta \S 84,89$ and 185 to 189 , will be mentioned again at $\$ 317$.
191. In respect of their origin nouns are divisible into (a) primitive and (b) derivative.
(a) Primitive nouns are substantives; as أُمُّ
 بَبَّ









(b) Derivative nouns may be substantive or adjective; and are either deverbal, as تَفْضِيبً preeminence from فَضَّل to regard as superior, أَدِيبُ lettered, polite from أَدُبَ to be well brought

 Christ.

Rem. $a$. Arabic dictionaries catalogue words under their radical letters ; those compiled by Orientals are mostly arranged in order of the final, and by Europeans of the initial radical. All place first the verb, even though it be derivative and a noun its etymon (i.e. an original, primitive, or root word). 'To distinguish may be difficult; but any noun which is used as maçdar (see § 195) will best be considered deverbal : thus sioi $a$ falsehood beside being a substantive is infinitive of - to beguile, cause to put on a false appearance which has also the infinitive أَفْفَ 1 . Lane* gives sea, great river, because it is cleft or trenched in the earth, as derivative of ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ 二 to split; whereas some may wish to regard sea as a primitive noun. It is well to treat substantives of foreign origin as etymons; thus,


 etc. Also we have í iْ أْلَمِين (plural, oblique case) the mundane rational creatures (see § 302 e). Words which Arabians admit to be borrowed are called by them مُعَّرَّ مُّ arabicized.

Rem. b. Arabian grammarians unmethodically divide the nouns into categories which overlap.

Note. The following defective substantives are primitive

[^3] لُغَةُ language, hand. Many nouns may be called either deverbal or primitive; thus, قَرَّ $a$ a village, stair, وَكَ a child, and according to origin munna or grace, favour.
192. Deverbal nouns are divisible into two principal classes:
(i) nomina verbi which are by nature substantives, but also serve as adjectives ;
(ii) nomina agentis and nomina patientis which by nature are adjectives, but also serve as substantives (see $\S 230$ ).
193. The following four sorts of deverbal nouns are connected with the nomina verbi :
(i) nomina vicis, that express the doing of an action once ;
(ii) nomina speciei, nouns of kind and manner ;
(iii) nomina loci et temporis, nouns of time and place (see § 221);
(iv) nomina instrumenti, denoting the instrument (see § 228).
194. Denominative nouns are divisible into six classes:
(i) nomen unitatis, denoting the individual (see § 246);
(ii) nomen abundantiæ, denoting a place of abundance;
(iii) nomen vasis, denoting a vessel (ؤَهِ) ;
(iv) nomen relativum, which we shall call the relative adjective (see § 249) ;
(v) nomen abstractum qualitatis, the abstract noun of quality ;
(vi) nomen deminutivum, the diminutive.
195. Nomina verbi are deverbal nouns, abstract and concrete. The former (known as مَصْادِر maçâdir, plural of ${ }^{\prime}$ source, and as numina actions) are infinitives; the latter are substantives pure and simple. When a noun is maçdar it cannot be used in the plural, and according to some grammarian (see $\S 292 d$ ) is of either gender : in such case it nearly corresponds with the English infinitive and can govern an accusative, which obviously may not be when it appears as. a simple substantive. The following verse employs كُتَّابٌ in both ways.


I wrote (it) and I felt sure at the time of writing it
That my hand would perish and its (the hand's) writing endure.
Note. Professor Wright uses the term nomina verbi as synonymous with maçâdir, infinitives and nomina actions; whereas I require a category wide enough to include all words in the succeeding sections. Without this change the Grammatical Analysis of my First reading book could not have been compiled.
196. Nomina verbi from the groundform of triliteral verbs are very numerous. The following specimens will serve our present purpose.

1 فَعْلَ as a creation,






10 كَ كِلَمَةَ ", فَعْلَّةُ a word, ignorance.

12 ظُلَّةَّ , text canopy.




27 lowing.
28 شَهْاَوَةْ , فَعَالَوْ testimony.

32 رسّولّ , message, apostle.







Rem. The forms numbered 39 to 43 commence with os ma: and if infinitive are called مُصْدرَ مِيْمِ

Note. Beside being feminine of رَابِطُ connector, nomen agentis of its verb, أرَّابِطَةُ the copulative is nomen verbi. Similarly任
197. Most verbs have only one infinitive (nomen actions) to their first form, and very few more than two or three apiece; exact information must be obtained from dictionaries.
198. When infinitives are few, deverbal nouns (nomina verbi) are very numerous.

No. 1. When infinitives these are from transitive verbs of
 command, assembly, plain, patience, صَبْر breast, صَرْرَ connection,
 ness, نَ نَّصْ diminution.

No. 2. When infinitives these are from intransitive verbs of form فَعْلَ, except عَمَلُ work, erection which is from a transitive
 , announcement, enunciation, غَضَبْ anger.



No. 6 has رُشْ true direction, رُدُ dominion.

expression, a word, and $\begin{gathered}\text { جَّ } \\ \text { جَ } \\ \text { a }\end{gathered}$ garden by which the ground is covered, from بَنَّ

No. 11 has حِطَّ
 follow in religion, people of a particular religion and so a nation, a people, ${ }^{\circ}$ an aggregate, a sentence, clause.

## No. 25 has بَنَيَّنَ perspicacity, بَيَّض whiteness.


 etymon of

No. 27 expresses sounds, as in the instance given above, viz. خُوْرُ

 رِسَالَáa message, letter.

 a سْفِّهُ a fool which are akin to nomina agents and may be taken as adjectives of the form فَعِيًّ.

199. If a verb has two or three meanings, to be distinguished by characteristic vowels, there may be one or more nouns for
 - to know; also عَعْفَ
 we find عَرْفَ عَرِفَ
200. If a verb has more meanings than forms there may be several nomina actions in correspondence ; thus شَفْع a pair and شَفَعْ ~ to double and to intercrcede.
201. Infinitives are used both in an active and a passive sense, there being no separate form to distinguish ; thus أَخْذُهُ from أَخَخَذ to take means his taking another or his being taken, EON sense of hearing and oral tradition from 'wm
202. The following nomina verbi from derived forms of the strong triliteral verb are also nomina actions.
 boning, تَعْرِيفَّ definition, تَعْلِئَ assigning a cause, تَفْصِيلً exposition, تَمْهُ specification, تَوْكِيدُ corroboration.
III فِعَالٌ فِّ
" رُغَاءَكَهُ to overcome, مُقَارَبَةٌ appropinquation.
iv
v
إِفْعَعالُ تَ تَغَّعُّ

vII
 vengeance.
 don, إسْتْفْهَامُ interrogation, arrogant pride.
Rem. In form ${ }^{\text {مُفَاءَلَةُ }}$ is identical with the feminine passive participle.

Note. As will be seen from its meaning, the word punishment is connected with the second form, viz. عَذَّ to punish

204. Nouns derived from verbs with the middle radical doubled observe the rules in $\S 120$; thus

 weakness.
205. Nouns from hamzated verbs observe the rules in $\S \$ 131$ to 135 .
206. Verbs treated in $\$ \S 142$ and 144 with 9 as first radical may drop it from the noun and then they add $\partial$ _ by way of compensation : thus, from وَضْعُ to put down we have وضَعَ يَضَع a وصَ position and وَعَةُ humiliation, from وَصَفَ يُصَفُ و to describe is
 وَعْهُ reach, attain are وَضْلَةُ a means of connection and صَلَّةُ a conjunctive.

Noтe. We find the substantive سَنَّ drowsiness as well as the infinitive وَوْسَنُ a sleeping from وَسْتُ a sleep which makes in the imperfect (see § 143).
207. Nouns from verbs with $g$ or as middle radical observe the rules in $\S \$_{\S} 150$ etc.
(a) Those of the form فَعْلُ remain unchanged, as خَوْنُ fear,

 like مَفْعِلُ most commonly follow § 150, as á returning, issue for ${ }^{5}$ مُصْ
(b) If ge preceded by kasraћ it mostly becomes ي g ; as
 , قِوْمَة , both from ar to stand.
(c) In the fourth and tenth forms the second radical is elided, its vowel passing back to the first, and $\%$ - being added to the word's end; thus إِرَادَّ wish for

210. From these verbs we have nouns of the form فَعْلُولَةُ as

212. Nouns from verbs with or as final radical experience assimilation into وَ وَ in the form فَعْلً if the second and

 strong the following rules hold.
(a) The third radical is retained if the second bears sukûn, as
 § $166 a$ a).
(b) Nouns of the forms فَفَعَعَلُ فَعُلُ are usually written with final $ى$, which is quiescent, while tanwin falls upon the
 tribe from qَوْى يَحْوِي to gather. Sometimes radical is written 1, as also in primitive nouns, thus عَصصَو a stick for عَصً.
(c) Nouns of the form ${ }^{\circ}$ á ${ }^{5}$ فَ with final radical may end in صَ صَلَوَةٌ (see § 7, rem. $d$, and compare § 294, rem. a).
(d) Nouns of the forms فُعَعَالُ , فَعَالٌ and change the final radical into hamzaћ, as
 nomina verbi of the fourth, seventh etc. forms as end, limit from تَنهَ - to forbid.
221. Nouns of time and place are formed from the imperfect active of a verb's ground form by substituting $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ of for its prefix: the second radical bears fatḥaћ, if fathaћ or ḍammaћ be characteristic of the imperfect, but kasraћ if kasraћ. Thus, شَرْبَ to
 يَنْزِلُ
 the place whence anything proceeds (see § 195).

Rem. $a$. A noun of time and place is called the noun of vessel.

Rem. b. A few nouns take kasraћ irregularly, as place of prostration, a mosque, مَشْرِقْ time or place of rising, the east, مَغْرِبُ place of setting, the west, مَسْقِّ
222. Nouns of time and place from verbs with $و$ or as initial radical have kasraћ to the second syllable and always
retain the first radical ; thus
 put down, a place from وَضع to put (see § 144).
223. Those from verbs with $و$ or as middle radical experience change in accordance with § 150 , thus סَكَّ existence for

Rem. Verbs with $\}$ as middle radical commonly retain it, thus place of returning, مَصْيُ place of arrival.
224. Those from verbs with $g$ or as final radical always have fathaћ (notwithstanding § 221) to the second syllable and they suffer the contraction explained in $\S 212 b$; thus,

226. Some nouns of time and place from verbs with or as initial radical take the form مِغْعَالَ appointed time or place from وَقَتَ - to fix a time, time of birth from وَّ דَ to bear a child. In both these examples replaces و according to § 145
227. Those from derived forms are identical in form with the nomina patientis, as ${ }^{\text {a }}$
228. Nouns of instrument denote the intransitive agent and
 from فَتَتَ

229. We have already mentioned in $\S 80$ the nomen agentis and nomen patientis; they are deverbal adjectives often used as substantives.
230. In the ground form nomina agentis are like فَاءِ and nomina patientis like مَفْعُور: thus a writer, clerk
 - to possess; - عَرْفَ for know ; to kollower









Note. As regards nomina patientis, we have mentioned in § 73 the impersonal manner in which passive verbs must often be
 in § 533 .
232. From the ground form there are other deverbal adjectives of which the following are specimens.


 swooning.
GR.
 clement, ${ }^{\text {T }}$ ' well acquainted, prompt,
 great.
 voracious.

14.
 of a horse grey.
Note 1. We use No 16 to express colours and defects.
Rem. c. When derived from transitive verbs فَعْيلُ may have a passive sense ; as ${ }^{\text {qِ }}$


Note 2. Much of the Corân is almost in the nature of rhymed prose, wherein $ـ$ - may rhyme with ي - etc., but the rules are more lax than in classical rhymed prose*; for instance زَحْمر merciful, عَظظيم mighty, عَلِيْ skilful, etc. are used to rhyme with مُبِين manifest, رُّهِين merciful,




[^4]فَاسِقِن impious, قَهِرْون subdues, نَاظِرِين beholders, and the like.
233. Adjectives of form فَعَّالً are intensive, as from asking we have whir importunate, a beggar.

Rem. $\alpha$. We use this form to indicate occupations, as صَرَّفَ a money-changer, قَوَّ ${ }^{5}$ a bow-maker, cavass.

Rem. b. There are other intensive adjectives, as قَّيُّؤَ everlasting.
234. The elative, the noun of pre-eminence, is


Rem. $a$. When superlative these adjectives must have the article as "Oo §475) as أَكْْرَرْمُمْ most of them, and if feminine (see § 295 b) are

235. No elative should be derived from adjectives which
 is أَشَدُّ بَيَاضًا stronger as to whiteness: but elative are sometimes formed, though contrary to strict rule, from the derived forms of verbs.
236. Next as to the derived forms in which we have (a) nomina agentis:


Iv ${ }^{\text {مُتْ }}$ well-doer, ${ }^{\circ}$ transgressor, ${ }^{\text {C. }}$
v
 each other.
viI ${ }^{\text {Sُتْقَلِبُ }}$ one who reverts.

x ${ }^{\text {x }}$
and (b) nomina patients :
 مُقَدَّرَّ ${ }^{5}$ ordained, predestined.
III مُعَاعَلُ
Iv ${ }^{5}$, bute, ${ }^{\text {on }}$

## v مُتْفَعَّهَّلُ

viII
237. Adjectives derived from verbs with the middle radical
 stronger or most strong for أَشَشَّ

238. Adjectives from hamzated verbs observe the rules in § 131 to 135 ; thus سَآَئُل not
239. Adjectives from verbs with $و$ or initial radical


Rem．$a$ ．Preceded by kasraћ i becomes as ás reader not قَا

240．Nomina agentis from verbs of the first form with or as middle radical substitute for that letter（i．e．hamzaћ and



241．Nomina patientis from verbs of the first form with $g$ or ي as middle radical，in case of $g$ elide it and throw back its
 but in case of s its elision must be marked by substituting kasraћ for dammaћ，and then $و$ of prolongation becomes thus مَحْيَنُّ one who receives recompense for مَيُونُ．

Rem．Sometimes we find an uncontracted form，as sَصْيُونٌ a debtor．

242．Adjectives of form فَعِع⿰⿱⺈⿵⺆⿻二丨⿱幺小 from verbs with or as middle radical become فَيْ فَيْبُ

 wicked；for مَوْيتُ from مَاتَ


 from choosable rather than，better than：its opposite خَيْرَ هِنْ worse is also used as elative．
 as substantives derived from the adjectives سَيِّء and. بَّيّنَّ
243. Adjectives from the derived forms of verbs with $g$ or ي as middle radical follow in respect of it the rules of their





Note 1. For orصِيبةَ a blow that hits we find which we may render $a$ mischance.

Note 2. Be it observed that the nomina agentis and patientis of Form vir are identical, and so with Form viII.
244. We have treated in $\S 167 b$ (ii) the nomina agentis of verbs with $و$ or $\operatorname{c}$ as final radical, and the nomina patientis in § 170 , which last section gives rules applicable to adjectives of
 . غَنييَّ

245. Adjectives, whose second radical bears fathaћ, from verbs with 9 (which we now write $\mathbf{g}$ (ws final radical, reject their final vowel.
(a) If triptote (see § 308) tanwin is transferred to the second radical (compare § $212 b$ ); thus given nomen patientis IV of
(b) If diptote there is only the vowel to reject; thus أرضَى better or best pleased for أَرْضَور.
246. Nomina unitatis nouns of individuality, which specify one from a genus or one part of a whole, are formed by adding $\partial$ 二 to the collective noun (see $\$ 292 \alpha, 306$ rem.). Thus, of cattle (ox or cow, ثَوْر

 (by some considered nomen verbi, see § 196, No. 28) from ضَلَّلُ
 from شَجَرْ a tree from

Note. We find also سَلْوْؤة a quail from سَلْوَى quail.
 to the word from which it is derived, and denotes some thing or

 Arabs, انْمِليزِيُّي

 فَابُّ
250. But the derivatives cannot always be formed so simply : certain terminations are rejected, and other changes arise. Thus




269. The diminutive is of form فَسْنُ from فُسَيْنٌ from beautiful.
289. Nouns substantive must in gender be masculine, feminine, or common, for Arabic has no neuter.
290. Nouns are said to be feminine (a) by signification, or (b) by form ; as,
 eye, ئ a lıand.

Rem. Masculine are رَأْس a head, and face.
(b) بُشْشْرَى an ox or cow, بَقَرَّ a chapter, good news.

Rem. A few nouns ending in 0 - are masculine because only used of males, as خَلْ خَلِ caliph.
291. Certain nouns are feminine only by usage; as íf


292. Many are said to be masculine by form and feminine by signification: together with others, these are of common gender; thus,
(a) Collective nouns which form nomina unitatis (see § 246) chiefly denoting animals and plants: but سَنْوَى quail is usually masculine.
(b) Collective nouns denoting rational beings and not forming
 people or tribe. But in أَهُ and one's household, people are mascauline only.
(d) Deverbal nouns when infinitives (maçâdir, see § 195).
(e) Words regarded as such. But كَانَ to be is feminine, as كَانَ أُنَّمَّةُ the complete kâna (see §441): so also usually are particles, as أَنِ أْمْصْدَرِيَّةِ the'an which with its verb is equivalent
 إنٍ أْشَّرْطِيَّةُ five 'in (see $\$ 362 k$ ).
( $f$ ) Certain nouns among which are the following; ; بَشَ $a$


293. From most adjectives and some substantives of the masculine gender, feminines are formed ending in $\%$, , $\mathfrak{v}$-,


Rem. Of these $\tilde{\tilde{b}}$ - is appended without further change,
 masculine.
294. The most usual termination is $\hat{0}$ - ; thus, آخ ${ }^{5}$ monkey, مَمِّيَّةً

 مُصْطَغَى chosen.

Rem. b. $\quad$ - (see end of $\S 2$ and $\S 8$, rem. $a$ ) is a compromise in orthography between the old pausal form $0^{\circ}$-, and $ت$ - which we find in رَرْمَ mercy, and كَلِمَة
295. Feminines ending in $\mathcal{G}$ - are derived,
(a) from adjectives of form فَعْعْلَنُ which make فَنْ غَضْبَى angry غَضْبَانُ
(b) from adjectives of form أَنْعَ أَعْ when superlative (being defined by the article or following noun, see $\S 234$, rem. a) in which case the feminine is فُعْلْ ; as, in in ine most beautiful
 greatest كُبْرَى أْلْمَدَأَكْنِ the greatest of the cities.

 is أُ أْرْ
296. Feminines ending in $\overline{1} 1$ - are derived from adjectives أَجْهَعْ , يَيْضَأُ white أَبْيضُ أَْْعُلُ
秋 most Arab which should come (irregularly, being elative) from أَعْرَبُ
297. All adjectives do not invariably employ their feminine forms, and some few have none. Only let the meaning be clear and there may be a laxity as regards form : thus,
(a) فَعُولُ is of both genders when active in signification and attached to a singular substantive, as رَجْلُ شَكُورُ a grateful man and إمرْأَةُ شَكُورُ a grateful woman; also when active in meaning and predicate to a substantive or pronoun in the singular, as هِيَ شَكُورُ she is grateful, ظَنَنْترَها صَبْورً I thought her patient. If however no substantive or pronoun be expressed we must, in order to make our meaning clear, employ the feminine form I أَيْتَ شَكُورةً as I saw a grateful woman, فَعُولَةٌ á he has not a she-camel to carry loads: also, this is required when the
 not a she-camel to milk i.e. to be milked.

 enemy fem. عَدُوَّةُ
(b) فَعْيلُ is of both genders when passive in signification and attached to a singular substantive, as إْ a slain woman; also when passive in meaning and predicate to a substantive or
 the eye is treated with kuhl. But if no substantive or pronoun be expressed we must, in order to make our meaning clear, employ رَأَيْتُ وَتِيلَةً $I$ I saw a slain woman: also, this is required when the adjective is active by signification ; whether transitive, as عَهُ an experienced old woman ; or intransitive, as رِيحَ عَزِيزَّ a powerful wind.

Rem. Exceptions are to be found in either case; as

解

(c) Similar peculiarities are to be remarked in certain others.

Note. Adjectives of form common gender.

Rem. b. Adjectives applicable to females only do not usually
 a wife cannot say أَنْتْتَ طَاُقِّ.
298. Nouns have (like verbs, see § 81) three numbers, the singular, dual, and plural.
299. A dual is formed by adding $\frac{1}{50}$ to the singular after elision of the final vowel or tanwin; as بَ بَ بَ nation أُمَّتَانِ

Rem. b. If the singular ends in quiescent $\mathcal{V}$, or I which was و, the original letter may be restored ; as عَصَوَوانِ a staff

Rem. e. If the third radical has been elided before $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ in the singular, it is not restored; thus, لُ لُغَوْوَةُ a langakes لُغَتَانَ
300. There are two kinds of plurals.
(a) That which, having only a single form, is called pluralis sanus, the sound or perfect plural.
(b) That which, having various forms, is called pluralis fractus, the broken plural; being more or less altered from the singular.
301. The sound plural of masculine nouns is formed by
 عَابُـُ , قَاهِرْونَ a worshipper The sound plural of feminine nouns is formed by writing $\stackrel{5}{\boldsymbol{y}}$ - for $\stackrel{5}{\circ}$ _ when they have that termination in the singular, or when without it by
 رَمضضَانَاتُ

Rem. $a$. If the singular ends in 'alif maqçûraћ (see § 7, rem. b) with or without tanwîn (see § 245), as مُصْطَظَفَى chosen


 quiescent preceded by kasrah (see $\$ 314$, rem. b), as blind (man) for 'ألْعَهِي: : then $\$ 166 b$ must be obeyed in the forming of the plurals. Thus,


The singular of illustrates § $167 a$ (ii) in changing from -iy to - i, and the plural differs nothing from that of see § 314, rem. $\alpha$. Of feminines we may note angry أَلْكْبرْيَاتُ (see § $303 b$ ).

Rem. b. Feminine substantives with sukûn to the middle
 village قَرَيَاتُ.

Rem. c. A final radical dropped as in $\S 212 c$ must reappear;
 مُصْطَفَهِتْ

Rem. d. A final radical dropped before o - sometimes



Rem. e. We have mentioned in $\S 294$, rein. $a$ سoّ heaven

302. The sound plural masculine is formed from :-
(a) Certain diminutives and proper names.
(b) Deverbal adjectives which form their feminines by adding

(c) Adjectives of form أَأَفْفْنَرُ more or most numerous :أَكْثَرُونَّ : also the corroboratives of

(d) The relative adjectives (see § بَدْرِئّ (irregularly
 termination is often shortened to ونُ ـونَ.
(e) A few words, among which are بَبْؤنَ (َبَنيَ for (for عَالَّرُّ ,أَرْوُونَ ourth one of the four classes of created beings. عَالَمْونَ (see § 191, rem. a), ذُونَ owner (see § 340, rem. c), etc.

Rem. $a$. It must be speclally noted that adjectives have the sound plural masculine only when joined to substantives, expressed or understood, denoting rational creatures.

Rem. b. From substantives and adjectives that have the sound plural masculine there may be formed a broken plural, especially from adjectives used substantively.

Rem. c. Certain numerals given in $\S 323$ have the form of sound plural masculine.

Rem. $d$. Some feminine nouns in $\mathbf{0}$-, especially those from which the final radical ( $0, \boldsymbol{0}$, or $\mathbf{)}$ has been elided, form a sound plural masculine, the termination 0 - disappearing ; as

303. The sound plural feminine is formed from :-
 .آيَتكّ a sign

Rem. Some grammarians express this rule less comprehensively.
(b) Feminine adjectives, the masculine gender of which has a sound plural, as مُمُؤْمَن
(c) Names of the letters and months, as well as certain other nouns.
304. The following are forms of broken plural, from triliteral roots, numbered as in the Grammar of Professor Wright.

| 25. | 19. | 13. | 7. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 26. | 20. | 14. | 8. |
| 27. | 21. | 15. | 9. |
| 28. | 22. | 16. | 10. |
| 29. | 23. | 17. | 11. 11. |
|  | 24. | 18. | 12. |

In the next table an example of, at least, one noun (substantive or adjective) appears to each plural, but space forbids us to attempt illustrating each singular form.

1. فُعْلُ as



 as فَاءِّلُ فَعُلُ فَعِلُ فَعَلَةُ

Rem. In nearly all cases the form فُعْ is admissible, as بُشْرُ
2. فِعِلُ plural of فَعْلَةُ فَعْلُةُ فِعْلَةُ as

3. فَعَعَةُ فَعْلُ فُعْلَةُ وِعْلَةُ فَعْلَةُ فُعْلُ فِعْلُ فَعْلُ plural of




 فَاعِلُ فَعَلَةَ as

 شَرْفَ ,شُكُولٌ letter (of the alphabet),
 سُجْودُ prostrate سَاجِدُ




4. فَعِعْ فَعِلُ فَاعِلُ plural of

سَحَرْةٌ magician سَاصٌ


11. فِعَلَةٌ plural of فِعْلُ فَعْلُ فُعْلُ as

12. فِ فِعْيلُ فُعَالُ فَعَالٌ فَعَلُ فَعْلُ plural of (أَخْوَوْ (for) a brother
 feminine quadriliterals, as


GR.






 panion أَضْحَابَا

Rem. There are a few other singulars which take this plural, as أَشْمَآَ of شَيْ thing.
 فs فُعُلُ فَعَلُ فُعْلُ فِعْلُ فَعْلُ
 answer, complement أَجْوْبَةُ
16. فَوْاعِلُ plural of فَاعِلَحْ فَاعِلَةُ فَاعِلُ فَاعِلُ as follower, appositive تَابِـعُ .سَوْاكِنُ
17. 0 in addition, as

 as



 opposed to سُودَانَ (plural of أَسْوَ


21. فَعْ
. أَنْبِياًٌ


 . فَتَآٍ
Rem. For declension see $\$ \S 312$ and 314 , rem. $b$.


a legal opinion فَتْوَى a corner, a class in school زَوَايَا (for as in §
25. فَ فَاءِلُ فِعَالُ فَعَلُ فَعْلُ as of aral حَ an ass an



28.

## فَ فَاعِلُ فَعَلَةُ فَعْلَةُ as of plural آْلُ


29. فَاعِعْلُ as plural of
صَـْبُ a companion صَاحبٌ
Rem. $a$. These rules are not without exception nor are they by any means exhaustive.
 broken plurals. When a singular has more than one meaning and several plurals, there may be a correspondence: thus خَفِيفَ
 deputy makes No. 17 خَخَरَنَ feminines. There are four meanings to عين beside its being the letter's name, and there are four plurals (three broken and a pl.
 A word which takes the sound plural may have also one or more broken plurals.
305. The following are forms of broken plural from singular nouns with four or more consonants.

1. (a) whose four consonants are radical, and (b) formed from triliteral roots by prefixing if or ; as
 مَمْنَائرُ

2. فَعْالِيلُ plural of quinqueliterals, with or without 0 in addition, of which the penult is a letter of prolongation ; as
written مَكْتُوبُ accursed مَلْعُونُ , مَكَاتِيبُ a

3. فَعَاللَةُ plural of many relative adjectives (see § 249) and other nouns with four or more letters; as
 angel

 may abbreviate to نَأَسُ especially with the article, thus أنَّاسُ,

4. We have noted the restriction ( $\$ 302$, rem. $a$ ) that masculine sound plurals can only be used of rational beings : they are said by grammarians to mean several individuals; whereas the broken plural is by nature a collective and feminine in gender, being generally represented by the feminine singular pronoun;
 so take them.

Rem. Beside broken plurals there are the two sorts of colelectives which have been mentioned in $\S 292 a$ and $b$ :
(a) generic nouns (أَسْهَاء أْنْجِنْس ) which form numina unitatis (see § 246); and
(b) nouns to which attaches the idea of collectiveness ( عْْ
 etc, thus of the people there is a section who direct (not which directs) others.


 sort (a) though without nomen unitatis, and makes a plural نُبَاتَاتُ.
307. In case of nouns which have only one plural there can be no difficulty of selection; but, while the rest are called plurals of abundance, those broken plurals in $\S 304$ numbered $12,13,14$ and 15 as well as the sound plurals, are called plurals of paucity, being used when the objects denoted are ten or less. Thus

308. In Arabic there are three cases, Nominative, Dependent and Accusative, each with its case-ending or sign: we shall however speak of the Oblique case when one and the same sign indicates both Dependent and Accusative. The following tables show how to decline undefined nouns which are not in construct state (see §313) by means of فَانْ a copper coin, حَ two boons, غَالدُونَ dwellers,

بَيضَاً (fem.) white, تَابَعَ ending with $\frac{\tilde{\delta}}{}$, whether broken plural or singular, mark the accusative differently (see $\S 8$, rem. a) from other triptotes, i.e. nouns with three case-endings.

Triptote or First Declension.
Masc. sing. Fem. sing. Broken pl.
Nominative . . . . . . .

Dependent . . . . . .
Accusative . . فَنْجْوًْا . . . . . . . .
Dual.

> Masculine Feminine


Oblique
Sound Plural.
Masculine Feminine
Nominative . . . . . طَيِبَاتُ
Oblique . . . . . . . . . . .
Except in the sound plural (see § 302) it makes no difference whether the noun be adjective or otherwise; and so with diptotes, i.e. nouns with not more than two case-endings.

Diptote or Second Declension.
Masc. sing. Fem. sing. Broken pl.

 Obl. أَحْسَنَيْنِ and so in the sound plural.

Note. For declension of جَوْارٍ see 312.
Rem. b. No colloquial dialect of Arabic employs case-endings regularly; duals are rare, and in sound plurals only the oblique case is used.
 such are the following.
(a) Broken plurals in § 304 numbered $16,17,20,21,22,23$ and 24 ; also those in $\S 305$ numbered 1 and 2 ; beside a few others.
(b) Various nouns, more especially adjectives such as are found in $\S 232$, Nos. 13 and 16, also in $\S \$ 234,295$ and 296 ; beside others.
(c) Many proper names, as to Arabic, as إسْرأَيْرُ, Israel,
 Exceptional are such as consist of three letters, the second of which has sukûn or is a letter of prolongation, thus نُؤَ Noah.

Rem. e. There are said to be nine reasons why a noun is debarred from taking tanwin.
310. Nouns ending in 1 三 or $ی$ 三 (for 9 - or see $\S \Omega 212 b$ and 245) have the same form in all three cases ; thus


Similarly we leave unchanged nouns ending in $ى \mathcal{L}$ (see § 309) such as غضْبَى (fem.) angry, أَاْنَى nearer, مُوسَى Moses.
 $\S 167 b$ (ii) and $\S 369$, Table 18) it is somewhat different, for we write

צَاعْوِّ
نَافِيًا negative

(br. pl. 13)
following in this the analogy of $\S 166 \alpha$.
312. There are however certain broken plurals ending with = which is held to represent يُ - They do not follow either of the last two rules ; thus جَبَارِيَّ a girl has br. pl. جَوْارٍ in the Nominative and Dependent, but جَوْارِيَ in the Accusative; so
 Accusative صـحـرارِي.
313. Undefined nouns become defined: 1. by prefixing the article $\bar{j}$ the; 2. (a) by adding a defined noun in the dependent case, or (b) by adding a pronominal suffix. While remaining undefined a noun may be put in construct state (see § 475) by the addition of an undefined noun in dependent case.

Rem. Proper names are in themselves defined, as are the


Note. A noun cannot have two determinatives; thus أَأَعْرَأْفُ
 the partition.
314. When a noun is defined by the article, the following cases arise.
(a) If it be triptote it loses the tanwin ; thus


Rem. From the accusative final I has disappeared along with

(b) If diptote it becomes triptote; thus

(c) If sound plural feminine it loses tanwin; thus
Nominative ألطَّيبَاتُ Oblique


Rem. $a$. Prefixing the article causes no change in the dual or sound plural masculine.

Rem. b. From the termination $=$ tanwin is lost and
 from أَيْدٍ أَأَيْيْ
 § 310) merely lose the tanwin, as أَهْدَى , أْلْعَصَا.
315. The following cases arise when a noun is in construct state, i.e. when it is كُضَافُ annexed to a noun in the dependent case.
(a) We decline singulars and broken plurals as if defined by the article ; thus

Nom.

 Acc. طُطَّابَ آلْعِلْنِ


Rem. a. Certain defective substantives (see § 191, Note) lengthen their final vowel after rejecting tanwin ; thus

(b) The dual loses $\dot{0}$ from its termination, as

 for يديـن
(c) The sound plural masculine loses ن́ from its termination, as

بَنِينَ
316. When the noun is defined by a pronominal suffix the following cases arise.
(a) Triptotes and feminine sound plurals lose tanwîn, duals and masculine sound plurals the termination or $\dot{\operatorname{j}}$; thus

 .بَالغُونَ بَالِّغُوهُ ريَّيْنِ

Note. In the Nominative and Dependent we have أَيْرِينَا our hands and in the Accusative أَيْدِيَنا from أَيْمٍ Acc. أَيْدِيًا
(b) The singulars, broken plurals, and feminine sound plurals lose their final vowel before <- of me, my (see §317); thus
 my gardens from جَنَّاتُ بُ becomes, so to speak, indeclinable.
(c) When a noun ends in 3 we use the original form, viz. ت; thus
(d) When a noun ends in hamzaћ, the 'imâd (عَهُم) support (see §16) is subject to change; thus from we have Nom. نَسِسَأَنْا


Rem. As regards words referred to in § 315, rem. $a$ we must
 brother in all three cases.
317. The pronominal suffixes which express the dependent are similar to those given in $\S 185$ except that $\mathbf{~}$ - of $m e, m y$ takes the place of نِئ; thus the guarding of them both.

Rem. $a$. Beside along with me we have by reverting to the older form (see $\S 20$ b). When attached to a word ending with 1 -, becomes بيَ عَصَابي my stick; and in most cases, together with the final letter, it becomes يَّ عَلَيَّيَ upon me (see § 358, rem. a). On ${ }_{\text {C }}$ í etc. see § 316, rem.

Rem. b. Like ني, we find - especially in the vocative,
 Lord for رَبِّي (see § $438 a$, rem. b).

Rem. c. Changes occur similar to those in $\S 185$, rem. $b$; thus
 . بَيْنَ يَديَهْ , between his two hands.
318. The cardinal numbers from one to ten are:



319. The cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 take the feminine form, when the objects numbered are of the masculine gender ; and conversely, the masculine form, when the objects numbered are feminine : as سِتَّةُ أَيَّامٍ seven verses.
320. Excepting the duals إِثْنَانِ cardinal numbers from 1 to 10 are triptote ; ثَثْ ثَهَهَاْنًِا
321. Cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 are substantives: either (a) they follow the objects numbered and stand in apposition, as رجَالٍ ثَخَذثَةٍ of three men i.e. of men, a triad; or (b) they are followed by a plural noun in the dependent case, as سِنَّةُ أَيَّامٍ six days. For the multiples of 100 see $\S 325$ and $\S 496$, rem. $\alpha$.

Rem. When these numerals take the article they lose tanwîn, as also when in construct state or defined by a pronominal suffix;

322. The cardinal numbers from eleven to nineteen are:

Fem.


Mase.

Fem.


14

Rem. $b$. These cardinal numbers are followed by the objects numbered in the accusative singular (see $\S 444 e$, rem. $b$ ).

Rem. c. These numerals may be called indeclinable, except



Rem. d. Since long ago these compound numerals suffered contraction into one word, and are further corrupted in colloquial dialects.
323. The cardinal numbers from twenty to ninety are:


Rem. $a$. For ثَثُثُونَ and
Rem. b. While of common gender these numerals are declined as masculine sound plurals, taking an oblique case in ينَ;
 usually take after them the objects numbered in the accusative singular (see § 499).
324. Numerals compounded of units and tens require; and between the unit and the ten; thus Nom. no nine

325. The multiples of ${ }^{5}$ one hundred are as follows:

Rem. $a$. For or or we may write aron, which last represents the usual pronunciation. There are other plurals beside the one mentioned in § 301, rem. $d$.
326. The multiples of

328. The ordinal numbers are adjectives; thus, masc. أَزْوَّ



Rem. $a$. The radical letters of íg íy in (see § 295, rem. b) and
 plurals, and will be further treated in $\S 486$, rem. $a$, and $\S 493$.
 the radical letters of $\underset{\sim}{\underline{5}}$, given in $\S 318$, rem. $a$, as also from the fraction
340. The simple demonstrative pronoun is 15 this, that, which in course of declension takes many forms, the commonest plural being, masc. ill fem.

Rem. c. Closely connected by origin with $\begin{aligned} & \text { ذ } \\ & \text { ذُ } \\ & \text { jossessor, }\end{aligned}$ which is also declined, making in the singular feminine Nom. ذَاتُ Dep. Acc. ذَاتِ, none of which is found except in construct state (see § 475).

Rem. d. By prefixing śs like to $\begin{aligned} \text { s. we get } \\ \text { sَذَا thus, so and }\end{aligned}$ so, see § 362 bb.
341. From the simple demonstrative pronoun compounds, which admit of declension, are formed (a) by appending $\boldsymbol{5}$,
 (b) by prefixing lí.
$a$ (i) $\boldsymbol{S}^{\boldsymbol{\xi}}$ that is used whatever the sex or number of persons addressed ; but we may say to a woman $\boldsymbol{S}_{1}$, to two persons , 自, etc. The plurals first syllable, those are of common gender.
(ii) Similarly ذَلِّكُ or that is used in conjunction with
pronominal suffixes of the second person; thus فِي زلكُمْ therein $O$ you.
 manner, so, see § 463.
b. The particle 1s (which is also an interjection, see § 368) we may prefix to $\overline{\dot{j}}$ and write ${ }^{\text {a }}$ هُ this; which word has a
 these of common gender.
345. We find in Arabic only one article, viz. $j$, , which is called the instrument of definition and always written in conjunction with the following word; thus أَقْرَآنُ the reading, the Coran.
 merely prosthetic, see § 19, rem. c) the lâm of definition, and it has two uses:
(i) implies that the word, to which it is attached, expresses a thing or person known to the hearer; thus يَرِثُونَ أْنْرَضْضَ they shall inherit the earth, i.e. the earth which we know :
(ii) word, to which it is prefixed, expresses an individual person or thing; in this case it shows the genus by indicating one member of a class; thus فَلُّرْمَه أْسُّدْسُ his mother shall have a sixth, whenever a boon comes to them.

Note. Arabic and some other languages are more regular than English in respect of the generic article, for one says "Man
is mortal" but "The horse is a quadruped," whereas in these cases we must write $\dot{\text { un }}$ §527).
346. Among the conjunctive pronouns are masc. آَّنِي fem. أَّنّّي which, whatever. They are also called relative pronouns and, with exception of أَنَّنِي, may be interrogative (see § 351).
347. As may be found in $\S 20 \mathrm{~b}$, initial الَ أَنَّبي represents the article, to which is joined $ل$ (see § $341 a$ ii) and (see § 340). Of the many forms taken in declension we must,
 أَّنِينَ. When used adjectivally these words refer to a definite substantive with which they agree in gender, number, and case;
 the land which We blessed: when used substantively however
 drowned those who.

Rem. The nominatives must originally have been التَّنُو and ألَّنُونَ but in place of these words the oblique case is always used (see § 308, rem. b) and a shortened form.
348. The conjunctive pronouns مَ and are indeclinable: the former refers to beings endowed with reason, as مُوسَى وَمَنْ ár Moses and those who (are) with him; while the latter is used of all other objects, as فَنْ فَعْلَ by reason of that which he has

351. All conjunctive pronouns may be interrogative except أَلَّذِي, thus هَنْ أَنْنَ who art thout ? فَعَلَ whas he done? see § 570 .

Rem. The interrogative is is usually shortened to ${ }^{\circ} \dot{s}$ when joined with a preposition, thus why? i.e. because of what?

 this sort is ó

 after thy coming. We find the indefinite $\dot{L}_{0}$ in conditional clauses
 and 407); when added to certain adverbs it gives them a conditional and general signification, thus where wo wherever, أَئَنْ where? أَيْنَّا wherever. If appended to أَنَّ , إِنَّ etc., it hinders their regimen ( (فُّنَّ to a conjunction or preposition ( اُلَّأَدْدَةُ usually does not ; and there are other uses for which it serves.

Note. Similar to the adverbs mentioned above is (َا) whatever from io what.
354. The particles are of four sorts; viz. prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions, and interjections.
355. The prepositions are divided into separable, i.e. those written as separate words, and inseparable, i.e. those which are united in writing with the following word.
356. The inseparable prepositions consist of one consonant with its vowel. They are :-
(a) $ب$ by, by means of, by reason of, for the reason, in, on, with, to, of, in exchange for, see § 456.
(c) Uelonging to, for the use of, to, due to, in, for, of, see § 453 .
(d) و' by in swearing, see $\& 462$.

Rem. a. Changes occur after $\underset{\sim}{\text { e }}$ similar to those in $\S 185$,


Rem. b. Before a pronominal suffix the preposition لِ becomes


Rem. c. Sometimes $\boldsymbol{s}^{\boldsymbol{J}}$ like is reckoned among prepositious: it will be treated in $\S 463$.
357. The separable prepositions are of two sorts: firstly, those which have different terminations and are biliteral or triliteral ; secondly, those which are substantives in the accusative singular and end in 二, having lost tanwin on account of the following noun (see $\S 478 b$ ).
358. The separable prepositions of the first sort are:-
(a) إِّى to, towards, until, see § 451.
(b) حَتَّى till, up to, see §452.
(c) by means of, incumbent upon, see § 459 .
(d) عَنْ from, away from, of, see § 449.
(e) فِف in, into, over, among, upon, on, concerning, treating of, see § 455.
(f) (
g) "́ or ó $\begin{aligned} & \text { ® with, clong with, see } \S 457 .\end{aligned}$
(h) هِ of, to, from, on, out of, see § $20 d$ and $\S 448$.
(i)

Rem. $a$. Before suffixes the final syllables of لَدَى are diphthongs; thus to thee, occur similar to those in § 185, rem. $b$; Coverocer them buth. With ove we have
 § 317, rem. $a$ ).

Rem. b. In connection with - we double the of $\dot{\text { of }}$,
 assimilated in connection with or ó or , thus turned disdainfully from that which for 1 مَ
359. Separable prepositions of the second sort have been described in $\S 357$ and will be noticed in $\S 444 b$. Among them are بَبْر after, بَيْنَ between, تَتْ under,
 (see §§ 464 to 470).
360. The adverbs are of three sorts; firstly, particles some inseparable and some separable; secondly, indeclinable substantives ending in $\boldsymbol{\perp}$; thirdly, nouns in the accusative.
361. The inseparable adverbial particles are :(a) $\overline{\text { i }}$, interrogative, see § 566 .

Rem. When this $\bar{i}$ is followed by $!$ we use $\mathcal{E}$ instead of 1
as 'imâd (see §16) to hamzaћ and write the two thus íci, as أَائنَّ نَنَا لَنْبْرًا shall there indeed be to us a reward?
(b) سَ سْوَف see sabbreviation of 364 e) prefixed to a verb in the imperfect to express more emphatically its future sense.

 us the plague, surely we will believe with thee, and we will certainly send. This la is always affirmative, and of it there are said to be five sorts.
362. Among the separable adverbial particles are:
(b) إِ and behold! lo! Of these in followed only by a nominal proposition (see $\S 513$ ) and refers to the same time as the preceding statement.

(k) إِن إنِ ألنَّافِيَةُ not, called the negative 'in, see § 558.
( $m$ ) ( إِنَّ verily precedes a noun in the accusative or one of the pronominal suffixes given in § 185 ; but the 1st singular can be إِنَّا إِنَّنَّا case the suffix ${ }^{\circ} \circ$ may be the pronoun of the fact, not being needed to express the sentence's meaning, thus إِنَّهُ أَنَا اُللّهُ verily I am God (see § 367 g ). By means of إِنَّ the subject may be introduced, upon which often follows a predicate with لَ (see § 361 c) as انَّ هُذَا لَسَاحِرُ عَلِيْكَ verily this (man) is a skilled magician. For government by إِنَّ see § 436.
(n) إِّنَّ only, see § 436 , rem. $d$, and § 585.
(q) إِي yes, yea; used with an oath, as bes bod, whence the vulgar أَئَوْا Damascus اي نعم is said.
(s) أَيْنَ where? أَيْنَهْهَ wherever, see § 353*.
(u) بَلَّى yes, yea sometimes to be translated on the contrary, for to a negative statement it gives contradiction. Compare si in French.
(z) قَ is usually employed with the perfect (see $\$ \$ 402,403 b$ ) to express more emphatically its past sense : when used with the imperfect we render $\overline{\text { and sometimes. }}$
(bb) thus (§ 340, rem. d) and (see § $341 \alpha$, rem.).
(dd) ý not is used :-
(i) as negative of the future and of the indefinite present, see $\$ 408 e$, rem. $a, 439,555$, and $584 a$;
(ii) as representative of the other negatives after; and, see $\S \S 482 d$ rem., 560 , and 580 ;
(iii) as negative of the jussive, see $\S \$ 417 b$ and 420 .
 place only before nouns and pronominal suffixes in the accusative case (see §436). With the 1st person we may write لنُكنَّنَا, لُكِنَّني
(.ff) ( in sense, see $\$ \S 412$ and 418.
(gg) (
 that) is followed by the subjunctive, see $\$ \$ 411,415 a \mathrm{i}$, and 556.
( $k k$ ) Lo not negative of the definite or absolute present, see $\S \S 408 e$, rem. $a$, and 531 ; also of the past see § 557.
(mm) ونَ yes, yea (for نَعْمَ it is agreeable) affirms the preceding statement.
(oo) interrogative, see § 567.
(qq) هُ هُ demonstrative here; whence (see $\S 341$ for an analogy) كِ there.
363. We have treated in $\S \$ 357$ and 359 certain accusative substantives which serve as prepositions; the same nouns may be used as adverbs, but they must invariably end in $\perp$. Thus هِ حِيْثُ ; where, wherence,
 Beforehand.
364. The Arabic language would however be poor in adverbs but for the adverbial accusative, which is extensively used as will be learned from §440 et sqq. Here we may mention all together. Also, of the same class are the adverbs :-
(e) سْوْفَ in the end prefixed to the imperfect to express real futurity, see $\S \S 361 b, 408 c$, and $587 d$.
(g) كَيْفَ how?

365. The conjunctions, like prepositions and adverbs, are some inseparable and some separable.
366. The inseparable conjunctions are :-
(a); and, see $\$ \$ 576$ to 583.
(b) فَ so, and so, so that, and thereupon, then, see $\S$ § $406 c$, $415 d, 540,576$, and 587.

Rem. These conjunctions $\boldsymbol{q}$ and may be preceded by the interrogative $\bar{i}$ (see § 566).
(c) J. This may be (i) the li of command (see $417 \alpha$ ) which is usually prefixed to the 3rd sing. of the jussive, to give it an imperative sense; and when following ${ }^{\prime}$ or ${ }^{\text {ف }}$.is written without kasraћ thus $j$ : or (ii) the li which governs the subjunctive and means that, so that, in order that (see ss 411 and 415 b).
367. Among the separable conjunctions are these :-
(a) ${ }^{\circ}$ when is prefixed to a verbal or nominal proposition and refers to the past; thus وَإِذ أَنْجَمْنَاكُمْ and (remember the time) when We delivered you.
(b) إِذا whenever, see § 405.
(d) أَّ 1 , followed by فَ , as for, as regards, see § 576.
(e) أَنْ that, so that, in order that governs the subjunctive (see $\S 8411$ and $415 a$ i) ; also the perfect and indicative (see $\S 415 a$ ii): it is used after certain prepositions (see $\S \S 470$, rem. $f$, and 488). Notice must here be taken

quotation, as أَوْحمْنَا إِلَى مُوسَى أَنْ أَكْقِ عَصَاكَ We reveraled to Moses (saying) Throw down thy rod.
 413, 417 ci , and 588. The compounds are :-

وَإِنْ although (in which sense it is not usually followed by an apodosis*), and if;

تَكِّنْ verily if, see § $361 c$;
إِّنَ (for meaning except and with a preceding negative only, see § $586 a$;

إِّنَا (for
 (إِمَّا أَنْ تُلْقِيَ وَإِمَّا أَنْ نَكُونَ نَحْنُ أْْمْلْقِينَ that thou dost throw or that we be the throwers.
(g) أَنَّ it precedes a noun in the accusative or one of the pronominal suffixes given in § 185 ; the 1st singular being أَنَّنَّ أَنَّ In such case the suffix $\circ$ may be pronoun of the fact (see § 362 m ) as because apostles used to come to them. Beside بِأَنَّ we have لِّنَّ which also means because, and كَأَنَّ sa though, see $\$ 436$ and 470, rem. $f$.

[^5](h) حَاشَرُ أَوْ خَاسِرُ a as gatherer or a loser.
(i) ثُمَّ then, and then, implying succession at an interval.
 being a conjunction حَتَّى is a preposition, see $\S 358 b$.

(n) ) $\begin{aligned} & \text { after, when, is used with the perfect. }\end{aligned}$

وَلَوْ
(p) Lَ as long as, as far as; used with the perfect (see § 407) and jussive (see § 418) : it is called the mâ of duration (see § $353^{*}$ ).
368. The interjections are numerous: among them we find يَ $O$ ! which is used before nouns (see $\S 438 a$ ) without the article,



369. The following pages supply paradigms of the verbs. First of all it is essential that Tables 1 and 2 be thoroughly well learnt; thus with - to wound (see § 35, rem. a).

> kalama kalamat kalamta kalamti kalamtu kalamâ kalamatâ kalamtumâ kalamû kalamna kalamtum kalamtunna kalamnâ yaklimu taklimu taklimu taklimîna 'aklimu yaklimâni taklimâni taklimâni yaklimûna yaklimna taklimûna taklimna naklimu



Table 3 gives sَكَّرَّ to wound much and to address, accost;
 تَقَاتَلَ to fight with one another; إْنَبَسَ to gush; to go




 let oneself be dragged; ; to stretch oneself, to become extended; إْتْتَدَّ

Table 6 gives أَرَبَ $\mathbf{1}$ - to invite ; to be well brought up;
 a good education, punish; آَمَر to consult with; آَسْفَ conflict; تَتَأَنَّنَ إِيتَجَر mission.


 to split itself; إْنْجَأَثَ unlucky.

 together with, teach mutually; أَقْرَأَ 1 to teach one to read or recite;
 oneself; $;$, of skin to be stripped off; $;$

 to fear; يَسرَ to play at hazard and to be easy ; أَوْرَرْ to cause




 hand ; تَقَوَّلَ (see § 47) to counterfeit, forge ; ; تَبَّبَّنَ to appear clear ;
 be driven ; to choose ;

Tables 14 to 18 give رَبَا - to hope for;
 to give a verb a transitive signification; عَاطَى to give mutually;




Concerning the vocalization of Derived Forms, it may be helpful to note that, in the perfect active, fathat is characteristic vowel of all: but in the imperfect active we find (except for iv
having sukûn to the first radical) in Forms II III and iv
Un I . . . . . .
in Forms v and vi
A A A A . . . . . . تَتَمَاتَلَ يَتَكَلَّهَ
and in Forms vil viii and $x$ (sukûn being duly noted)
AA I


In the perfect passive we find
U1 . . . . . . . as etc.
and in the imperfect passive
U A A . . . . . . . as يُسْتْم يُقَاتَلَ يُعَّةّ etc.
Note. Nomina verbi are treated in $\$ 8195$ to 212 ; while nomina agentis et patients find place in $\S\} 229,230,236$ sqq.

FIRST FORM OF THE STRONG VERB.
TABLE 1. ACTIVE.
Imperfect.
Energ. I. Jussive. Subj.

تَعْلْنَّنَّ

تَكْلْدَ تَكْلِمْ
Indic.
يَعْمِمُ
تَكُلِمُ
تَكْلْهَنَّ
تَكْلِهنَّ تَكْلِهِي

تَكْلِهِي تَكْمِمُ

تُعْلِنْنَانِّنِ
كُتْهْنْ
يَكْلْنْنَ
يَكْهُمْنَ
تُكْدِنَّ

تُنِّنَنَّ
بَنْْلْمْ
نَكْلَدْ
نَكْمْمُ

كَ
كَ كَتْهتِ f.
كَ كَكْتٌ c. 1.
会 m. 3. Dual
f.
.
كَلَّهُوا m. 3. Plur.
Perfect.

كَكَّهْ m. 3. Sing.
كَ
f.

كَ سَلْمْتْمْ
كَكَهْتُنَّ
كَ كَ c. 1.

## TABLE 1. (continued.)

Imperative.


VERBS WITH OTHER CHARACTERISTIC VOWELS.
We have seen however, in $\S \S 91,92$ and 93 , that all strong verbs are not conjugated like the above ; for instance,
Imperative
Imperfect Perfect
Indicative

言 m. 3. Singular

m. 2.

سرعْ m. 3. Singular

2

$$
\text { سَرعْتْ m. } 2 .
$$

## FIRST FORM OF THE STRONG VERB．

## TABLE 2．PASSIVE．

## Imperfect．

Energ．I．Jussive．Subj．
يُعْلَمَ يُعْلَمْ

رُكْلَهَنَّنَّ
تُكْلَمْ
تُكُتْمَ
تُكلَّمِي
تُكْلَّهِي
أُكْكَمُ أُ أْكَمَ
يُعْلَهَانِّ
تُعْتَهَانِّنِ
تُكْلْهَهَانِّ
يُعْلَهُنَّ
يُعْلَهْنَانِّ
تُتْكَكْنَّنَ

## 

2－0
تُكْلَهُوا
䳡 －钅
 يُكْتَهَا

يُعْلَهَانِ
تُكْكَهَا
تُعْلَنَهِانِ تُكْتْمَانِ
，
يُعْلَهُونَ يُعْلَهُوا －
－0，
يُعْتَهْنَ
تُكْلَهُونَ
تُكْلَمْنَانِّنِّ
نُكْلَهَنَّ
نُعْتُمْ
象

Perfect．

解 m．3．Sing．
تِ
تُ كُلْهْتَ m． 2.
تُ
تُ
كُلِّهَا m．3．Dual年 1 ．
c． 2.
ا
．
كُ كُلْتْمْ m m． 2.
كُ $f$ ．
كُ

DERIVED FORMS OF THE STRONG VERB.

## TABLE 3.

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect

َوْوِرَ




VI
تُقُوتِلَ يُتَقَاتَلُ

اُنْبْجِسَ يُنْبَجْس
اُْتْتِرِقَ يُفْتَرَقُ
الْتْتُتْ
يَفْتَرْقَ
VIII
يَصْفَّ إصْغَرِّرْ
أْتُغْفْرِ يُسْتَغْغَرْ

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH MIDDLE RADICAL DOUBLED．

TABLE 5．a．ACTIVE．

Imperfect．
Energ． $\mathbf{1}$ ． Jussive．
＂َ

ざ w و
ジَ


ェَ wَ

نَّ
نَّ
＂${ }^{\omega}$ －يـهِ

ジ
ن！
ū ẅr
OSOO


Indic．
※ $\quad$ ，
Anon


A．

تِّهـ،


نِّهِ
نٍ تِّهِ

－先

تَهُدُّونَ
تَهْدُدْنَ


Perfect．
To stretch

مَدَّتْ f．

シ̊ッパ m． 2.
－号へ́ f．


مُدَّ m．3．Dual
．
مَدْتُتهُا
．
f．
2.
f．
مَتَدْنَا

TABLE 5: $a$. (continued.)
Imperative.

-0, 0,
2. Plural
 Jussive has also يَهِّدُّ يَهِّنِّ

VERBS WITH OTHER CHARACTERISTIC VOWELS.
Attention is drawn in $\S 120 b$ to these verbs, which have other peculiarities beside those here noted:

Imperative.



Perfect.
Indic.


يَهِّسْ

m. 3. Sing.

m. 2.

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH MIDDLE RADICAL DOUBLED.

TABLE 5. b. PASSIVE.
Imperfect.

Energ. I. Jussive. Subj. Indic.


تُمَهِّنَّ
أُمْـَنَّ

## تُمَّدِّي

أْهِدْ

يُهَّدَّ
تُهمَدَّا
تُهـمَّدَانِ
تُهَمَّ تُمَانَّانِّ
تُمَهَّا

يُهـَّنَّنَ

 يِهـنـونْ

تُهَهُّنَّ
تُهُ تُهـهـّوّوا تُمَفُّوٌ تُهمَّدُون

تُمْتْدْنَانِّ
نُمَهِّ
نُهـوـدُ
m. 3. Sing.
f.

كُaْتْتَ m. 2.
مُرونت f.
مُروْتُ c. 1.

คُّ
مُدَّتًا
مَبِدْتُمَا 2.
~ٌ m. 3. Plur.
رُبِدنْ $f$ f.
m.

رُـودْتُنَّ
. 1.

## DERIVED FORMS OF VERBS WITH MIDDLE RADICAL DOUBLED.



VERBS WITH INITIAL RADICAL HAMZATED. TABLE 6. riniber $\mathrm{gn}^{\prime}$. à um festin

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect
أُدِبَ
يُؤْتُرُ
يُؤْلْ
يُؤْلْمُ
يُؤَدَّبُ
أُدِّبَ
أُومِرَ يُوْرَامِرُ
يُؤْسَفُ


سِتَّأَنَّنُ
تِؤِّنَّنَ
$30 \sim 3$


تُؤُومِرَ يُتَوْامَرُ
يُؤْتَجرُ



ACTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect


آسَفَ يُؤْسِفُ IV تَأَزَّنَ

 إْتَأْذَنَ يَسْتَأْذِنْ إِسْتَذْنْ

Form VII is not found.

## VERBS WITH MIDDLE RADICAL HAMZATED.

## TABLE 7.

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect



تُرْرِّسِّ
تَبُؤِسِس يُتْبَاَتَس
انْزْجُئثَ يُنْجَأَثُ
أُبْتُتُيُسَ يُبْتَأَسُ
أْسْتُشْئْرَ يُسْتَشْأَمر

AOTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect


رَأَسَّ II


تَرَرأَّسْ تَرَّنَّسَ


إْبَتَأَسَ يَبْتَيُسُ


## VERBS WITH FINAL RADICAL HAMZATED.

TABLE 8.
PASSIVE.
ACTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect





قُرِعِعَ عُقْرَأُ
خُطِى عُ




تُخْوطِعَ يُتَذَاطَأُ


قَارَأَ


V



تَتَبَبَّ




VERBS WITH , OR AS INITIAL RADICAL.
TABLE 9.

PASSIVE.


أَسْتُوقِعَ يُسْتْوْعُع
أسْتُوسِرُ يُستيْسرُ

ACTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect




Forms II, III, V and VI resemble strong verbs, and VII is not found

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH , AS MIDDLE RADICAL.

TABLE 10. ACTIVE.

## Imperfect.

Energ. 1. Jussive. Subj.
يَقْرَ
 تَتْرَنَّنَّ

تَقْوَلْ تَقّْلْ تَقْوُ . تَتُوْرِنِّ تَ تَّوْبِي تَقُولِبي

أَّؤر
أَّرْ
يَيْوَوَنِّ
تِقُولَ
 تَقَوَوَنِّ

تَقْوَوَّ
تَ تُوْوَّ تَقْوَالَنِ
تَقْوَآَّنِّ
تَ تُوْوَّ
تَ تَتُوَالَنِ

يَقْوُنُّنُ
بَعْوُونُوا
يَّعُولُوْا يَرْقْنَن

تَ تَوْنَّنَّ
تَقْوُونُوا

تَتُقْنَانِّنِ
تُنَوْنَّنْ
$\stackrel{j}{i}$

Perfect.
say f.

قُلْتَ F m. 2.
f.

قُلْتُ 1 قُ 1 .
a قَآلَ m. 3. Dual
f.


قَالُوا m. 3. Plur.
f.
m. 2.

قُلْتُنَّ
قُ

## TABLE 10. (continued.)

Imperative.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| قُولِي |  |  | 2. Singular |
|  | قُولِ |  | 2. Dual |
| قُلْنْ |  | قُولُوا | 2. Plural. |

TABLE 11.
Imperative.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| سِّرِيك |  |  | 2. Singular |
|  | سِيرا |  | 2. Dual |
| سِرْت |  | سِيرو1 | 2. Plural |

TABLE 11. $a$.
Imperative.

Feminine

-

Common
Masculine

خَافَا
2. Dual
2. Plural

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH AS MIDDLE RADICAL.

TABLE 11, (continued from page 124). ACTIVE.

Imperfect.
Energ. I. Jussive. Subj. Indic. يَسِيرُ يَسِّيرْ يَسْرَ
تَسِسيرنَّ
تَسِرْ
تَ تَسِير
تَسِيرُ
تَسِيرَ
تَسِيرُ
تَّسِيْبِّنِّ
تَسِيرِي
تَسِيرِينَ تَسِيرِي
أَسِيرنَّ
أَسِرْ
أَسِيرَ
أَسِيرُ
يَسِيرَانِّ
يَسِيرًا
يَسِيرَانِ يَسِيرًا
${ }^{\circ}$ in
تَسِيرًا
تَسِيرًا


تَسِيرَانِّ
تَسْـ"
تَسيرًا
تَسِّرَانِ
يَسِيرُنَ
يَسِيرُوا ِيَسِرْنَ

يَسِرْنَ
يَسِرْنَ
シ,
تَّسِیروا
تَسِيروا
تَسِيرُونَ
تَسِرْنَانِّ


نـــرْ


نَسِيرْ
زَسبيو

Perfect.
m. 3. Sing. go

سَارَتْ
سِرْتُ m. 2.
سِرْتِ f.
تِّرْتُ c. 1.
سَسارًا m. 3. Dual
.
سِرْتهَا
سَارُوا m. 3. Plur.
سِرْنَ
سِرتْمْ $m$ m. 2.
f.

سِرْنَا

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH, KASRATED AS MIDDLE RADICAL.

TABLE 11. a. (continued from page 124). ACTIVE.

Imperfect.
Energ. i. Jussive. Subj. Indic.


تَ تَخَافُ تَ تَخَخَافَنَّ


يَخَافَانِ يَخْافَافًا يَخَافًا يَخَافَانِّ
 تَخَافَانِ تَتَخْافَا تَخَافَا تَذَافَانِّ
 يَخْفْنَ يَنَ يَنْفْنْ تََذَافُونَ تَ تَذَافُوا تَخَافُوا تَخَافُنَّ


Perfect.
fear
خَفْ m. 3. Sing.

تَ m. 2.
خِ f .
خْغْ c. 1.

خَافَا m. 3. Dual
خَا خَ C .
с. 2.

خَافُوا m. 3. Plur.
خفْنَ $f$.
خفْتْهُ m. 2.
自 f .


ي FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH OR AS MIDDLE RADICAL.

TABLE 12. PASSIVE.

Imperfect.
Energ. I. Jussive. Subj. Indic.
يُقَالُ يُقِ يُقَالَّنَّ

تُقَالِّيْ تُقَالِّنَ
أُقَالَنَّ
أُقَهْ
يُقَالَحْ
تُقَقاَ نَ
تُقَاَلاَنِ
تُقَاَلانِ
يُمَّأنَّ
يُقْتَانَّنِّ
تِ تَّانَّنَّ
تُقَالُوا
بُقْتُنْ
نُقَّْ
نْ

Perfect.

قِيَ m. 3. Sing.

قِ O f.
قِلْتُ c c. 1 .

قِيَّ m. 3. Dual
f.

قَ قلْتُهَا c. 2.
قِيلُوا
f.

قِلْتُمْ m m. 2.
f.

قِلْنَا c. 1.

## DERIVED FORMS OF VERBS WITH , OR ي AS MIDDLE RADICAL.

TABLE 13.

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect


طُوِوعَ يُطَاوَعُ سُويرِّ يُسَايَرُ

أُحِيط يُحَاطُ
تُقُوِلَ يُتَوَّوَلُ تُّبيّنَ

تُعُوْوِنَ
تُسُويرَ يُتَسايَرُ
اَنْسِيقَ يُنْسَاقُ

اُخْتِيرَ يُخْتَارُ

أُسْتُقِقيَ تُسْتْمَمَامْ

ACTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect


يُسَايِرُ سَايِرْ
يُحِيطُ أَحِطْ

يَتَبيَّنُ تَبَيَّنْ
يَتَعَاوَنُ تَعَاوَنْ يَتْتَايَرُ تَسَايَرْ

يَنْسْاقُ إْسْقَنْ

يَخْتَارُ إْمْترْ

يَسْتَعِيمْر إِسْتِقْمْ


IV
2. أَحَطْتَ 2 m.

تَتعَاَونَ

أْسَاقَ 3. m. Sing. be
2. m.

VII druna
hoose

الْمْتَرْتَ 2 2. m.
VIII
3. m. Sing.


# FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH , AS FINAL RADICAL. 

TABLE 14. ACTIVE.


## TABLE 14. (continued).

Imperative.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| أرْجِي |  | 2. Singular |
|  | آرجّو!ا | 2. Dual |
| ارْجهونْ |  | 2. اُرجّوا 2. Plural |

TABLE 15.
Imperative.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| اهْبِي | " | 201 2. Singular |
|  | ! | 2. Dual |
| اهْدين |  | 18، 2. Plural |

TABLE 16.
Imperative,

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| إرْضَيْ |  |  | 2. Singular |
|  | إرْبَهِ |  | 2. Dual |
| إرْضَنْنَ |  | إرْ9 | 2. Plural |

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH AS FINAL RADICAL.

TABLE 15. (continued from page 130). ACTIVE.

Imperfect.
Energ. I. Jussive. Subj. Indic.





يَهْدِيَانِ يَهْدِيَا يَهِدِيَا
تَهْدِيَانِ تَهْدِيَا تَهْهِدِيَا تَهْدِيَانِّ

يَهْدُونَ يْهْدوا يَهْدُوا يَهْنَّ

تَهْدُونَ تَهْدُوا تَهْدُوا تَهْدُنَّنَّ
تَهْدِينَ تَهِّدِنِينَ تَهْدِينَ تَهْدِينَانِّ


Perfect.

## direct

© هَ m. 3. Sing.
هِ هَتْ
هَدَيْتَ m. 2.
هَدْيْتِ
هُ هَيْتُ c. 1.
هَدَيَا m. 3. Dual
. هَدْتَا
.
.
f.

هَدَيْتْمْ
هَ هَيْتُنَّ
害c. 1.

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH MIDDLE RADICAL KASRATED AND و OR AS FINAL RADICAL.

TABLE 16. (continued from page 130). ACTIVE.






تَرْضَيْنَ تَرْضَيْنْ تَرْضَيْنِ تَرْضَيْنَانِّنِ

رَضِيًا n. 3. Dual
f.

رضِيتُهَا
رَّوا m. 3. Plur.
رَضِينَ f.
رضِيتٌمْ m m. 2.
رَ رِيتُنَّ
رضِ

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH , OR AS FINAL RADICAL.

## TABLE 17. PASSIVE.



# DERIVED FORMS OF VERBS WITH OR AS FINAL RADICAL. 

TABLE 18.


 أُرْجِيَ

n. ag., m. مُعْاطِيَةَ
n. pat., m. مُرْجَاةً f. مُرجًى



 يُ يُتْتْقَى
n. pat., m. ${ }^{\text {s. }}$


n. ag., m. مُتَجَلِّيَةَ

n. ag., m. لِ Jj

n. ag., m. مُتْجَلِيَةُ



n. ag., m. $\underset{\sim}{\text { On }}$


PART III.

SYNTAX.
[From section numbers below there must be subtracted 400, in order to ascertain the corresponding section of Wright's Arabic Grammar, vol. ii.]
401. We have observed in $\S 77$ that an Arabic verb has two States: of these the Perfect indicates,-
(a) an act completed at some time past, as نَزَعْ مُوسَى يَدَهُ Moses plucked out his hand ;
(b) an act which has been already completed at the moment
 ce shall I seek for you un object of worship other than God, seeing that He has favoured you above all creatures?

 no mischance befalls except by permission of God;
(d) an act just completed at the moment of speaking, as I repent toward Thee;
(e) in treaties, promises, bargains and the like, an act which, though future, is quite certain ;
( $f$ ) something desired, as ;َحْمَهُ اللّهُ God have mercy upon

 God the Lord of all creatures, but the verb is declarative (see § 50 , rem. a).
402. The perfect is often preceded by قَدْ (see $\S 362 z)$ to add assurance of completeness ; which may lie
 so from it twelce springs gushed, every tribe assuredly knew their drinking-place; or
(b) in being expected or contrary to expectation, as قَذْ جُمْتُّكْمْ =

Note. If preceded by affirmative $\bar{\jmath}$ (see $\S 361 c$ ) the influence of ${ }^{\circ}$ قَ is in no way affected.
403. The pluperfect is expressed,-
(a) by the simple perfect in a relative or conjunctive clause* which depends upon a clause in which the verb is perfect ; thus
 gracious word of thy Lord was fulfilled to the sons of Israel by
 so when they had cast, they bewitched men's eyes;
(b) by the perfect and $\overline{\text {, }}$, with or without $\dot{9}$, provided the
 ضَّ山ّوا and when they saw that they had erred;
(c) by كَانَ to be prefixed to the perfect;

[^6](d) by قَ قَْ interposed, or prefixed. 404. (a) When two correlative clauses follow ${ }^{\circ}$ if (see $\S(367 o$ and 588) or any similar hypothetical particle, perfect verbs in both clauses may correspond with the English pluperfect sub-
 Thou wouldst have destroyed them beforehand.
405. After إِذ whenever, as often as (see $367 b$ ) a perfect is said to take the imperfect's meaning; and perfect verbs in two correlative clauses have either a present or future signification, provided the first clause extends its conversive influence to the
 whenever a boon comes to them they will say, This (boon) is due to us. Sometimes إذا is followed by an imperfect, and sometimes preceded by كَ or the like.

Rem. c. So also with two perfect verbs after حَنَّى إِذَا (see
 winds) bear cloud, We drive it ; or in English idiom, till they bear cloud, when We drive it.
406. (a) After $\dot{\dot{U}}$ lif (see $\S 367 f$ ) and words similarly of conditional meaning, the perfect is said to take a future sense and can be rendered by the English present ; as, for instance, after نَ who, whoever, is what, like. Thus آنْ
 except what he wishes, إِّلَّ بَا شَاَة wish. In certain cases this rule applies to $\begin{aligned} & \text { أُو } \\ & \text { or } \\ & \text { or }\end{aligned}$
(b) If the words إٍ etc. be followed by two clauses, the first expressing a condition and the second its result, both verbs may be perfect.
(c) If the perfect after ${ }_{\dot{j}}$ إِ etc. is to keep its original sense, كَانَ or one of أَخَوَّتُ كَانَ the sisters of the verb kâna (see §442) must stand in the protasis before the verb and فَ must mark
 ألصَّادِقِينَ if thou hast brought a sign, produce it, if thou art of the truthful.
( $d$ and $e$ ) Other cases arise in the use of
Rem. c. When ló etc. are interrogatives or simple relatives, and حَيْثُ a simple relative adverb, without any conditional signification, perfects dependent upon them keep their original sense.
407. After Ló as long as (see $\S 367 p$ ) the perfect has a present or future signification; thus إتَّقُوا أللّهَ مَا أَسْتَطَعْتُرْ fear God as far as ye are able.
408. The Imperfect Indicative expresses no temporal definition, but indicates a state existing at any time. Hence it signifies ;
(a) what is always taking, or may at any time take, place (the indefinite present); as يَخْرج نَبَاتُهُ بِإِذْنِ رَبِّ its (the land's) plants come forth by permission of its Lord:
(b) an incomplete act, commenced and continuing (the definite present); as I أَنْصَحُ أَكْهُ I counsel you:
(c) what will occur (the simple future), as أْذْكُرْ يَوْمَ يَجْهُعُكُمْ ; make mention of the day whereon He shall assemble you. The future sense may be made inore distinct by using سَوْتَ (see § 364 e),


(d) When appended to the perfect without intervening particle, it expresses (either what is explained in the following subsection, or) an act which was future to the past time of which we speak; thus أَرسْرَ يُعْلْمُaُ دِذْلَكِ he sent to inform him of this, he determined to circumvent the Jews.
(e) Under circumstances similar to those mentioned in the preceding subsection, the imperfect indicative frequently expresses an act which continues during the past time, and then it can be translated by the English present participle; thus ورُ he grasped the head of his brother,

 goods of this nearer (i.e. the present world) and saying, We shall be pardoned.

Rem. $a$. After $\bar{y}$ yot the imperfect indicative retains its idea
 as to that (land) which is bad (its plants) do not come forth except scantily. After Lै $_{\text {sot }}$ not it has the present sense (see §557), as or
409. By prefixing $\begin{gathered}\text { ك́ } \\ \text { to the imperfect indicative we point }\end{gathered}$ out a past act which continued or was repeated ; thus بَطَرَ مَا الَّنَّينَ كَانُوا كَانُوا يَعْهُلُونَ worthless was what they were doing يُسْتَضْعَفُونَ who used to be esteemed weak:
411. The Subjunctive mond has always a future sense after the adverb لَنْ not (see $\S 362 h h$ ), as تَرَنِي thou shalt not see Me; also after certain conjunctions, amongst which are as ئَنْ (pronounced حَقِيُّ عَلَيَّ أَنْ لَ (it is) binding on me that I shall not speak concerning God except the truth; and ل that, so that, as dost thou leare Moses so that he shall commit disorders in the land and shall leave thee and thy gods? For further particulars see § 415.
412. The Jussive mood takes the perfect's meaning when
 مِيشَّقُ آلْكِتَابِ has not the cocenant of the book been made with them? See § 418.
413. The jussive after $\dot{\dot{j}}$ if and words of conditional sense (see $\S 406$ ) has the same meaning as the perfect in a similar
 evil befall them, they attribute their bad luck to Moses and those
 sign thou bringest us in order that thou mayest bewitch us thereby. When the first of two correlative clauses contains an imperative,
and the second a jussive, the latter has the same meaning as if the first clause contained a verb in the jussive preceded by
 will pardon to you your sins meaning if ye enter the gate We will pardon you. See § $417 c$ ii.
414. The imperfect Energetics are future in sense, as I will cut off your hands and feet on opposite sides, then I will crucify you. See § 419.
415. The Subjunctive mood, which can occur only in a subordinate clause, indicates an act dependent upon, and future to, that mentioned in the previous clause : it is governed by certain particles, amongst which are the following.
(a) i. By í (see §367e) that after verbs expressing inclination, order, permission, necessity etc.; as also by עَ ${ }^{\text {v }}$ that not
 your Lord may perhaps destroy your enemies; see also examples in § 411.

Note. When (see $\S 367 f$ ) is used, the ruling verb may be understood, as قَالُوا يَـا هُوسَى إِمَّا أَنْ تُلْعِيَ وَإِمَّا أَنْ نَكُونَ نَيْ نُ الْمْلْقِينَ we throw. We find زَعَرَ أَنِّيَنَ كَفَرُوا أَنْ لَنْ يْبْعَوُوا as أَنْ كَنْ the unbelievers huve asserted that they shall not be raised (from the dead) : here أَنْ stands for ${ }^{\text {أَنَّرَ }}$, and this is common when the verb is negatived, as well as when the verb is strengthened with سَوْفَ or سَ oَ
ii. But if the ruling verb makes an assertion (without expectation, wish, or the like) and the verb following is to express a past or present sense we use the perfect or imperfect indicative after Thus أَنْ ye wonder that an admonition has come to you, أَعْلَمُ أَنْ يَنَاْرُ I know that he is sleeping. It is however more usual in this case to employ a nominal proposition (see $\S 513$ ) using أَلَمْ يروْا أَنَّهُ لَ يُعَلِّهرْمْمْ could they not perceive that it (the calf) did not speak to them? If the ruling verb expresses doubt or supposition concerning a thing future, أَّ may govern the imperfect indicative or subjunctive; as ظَنُّوا أَنْ يَقَعُ عَلَيْهِمْ they thought it was about to fall upon them.

Rem. $a$. As regards $\begin{aligned} & \text { أَنِ أُمْهِصْدَرِّيَّ } \\ & \text { the 'an which with its verb }\end{aligned}$ is equivalent to a maçdar, see § 488.
(b) By لِ in order that (see $\$ 366 c$ ii) and its compounds ; thus verily this is a plot which ye have contrived in the city in order that ye may drive out of it its people.

Rem. a. Originally لِ was a preposition (see $\S 356 c$ ), and when a conjunction it stands for ${ }^{\circ}$,

(c) By حَحَّى till (also originally a preposition, see § 358 b): but if no intention or expectation of the agent be implied, there follows the indicative, or as in $\$ 405$, rem. $c$, the perfect.
(d) By فَ so that when it introduces a clause giving the
result or effect of a preceding clause which expresses a wish;
 your Lord may perhaps make you successors in the land, so that He may see how ye act. There are other conditions under which فَ governs a subjunctive.
416. The Indicative must be used in all clauses except those governed by أَنْن ; or other particle with sense of thus We diversify the signs to a grateful people ; أَكْمَ $I$ I know from
 causest to err whomsoever Thou dost wish, and Thou leudest aright whom Thou dost will; زَعَلَّهْمْ يَنَََّّرُوْنَ perhaps they will take warning ; إِذ يَعْدُونَ ; إِاَ هُمْ يَنُْْشُونَ lo, they break their promise when they transgress on the Sabbath.
417. The Jussive usually conveys an order, being connected in form with the imperative.
(a) It is used with ل prefixed (the li of command, see § $366 c$ i) in place of the imperative; and if ${ }_{9}$ or فَ فَ be also employed, we may write $\mathfrak{j}$ : thus عَلَى أللَّ فَلْيْتَوَوَّلِ أْمْهُوْمْنُونَ upon God then let the believers rely (as to this verb's final vowel, see $\S 20 d$ ). We seldom find $ل \bigcup$ thus used except with the 3rd person, which is wanting to the imperative.
(b) With the adverb $\dot{y}$ (see $\S 362 d d$ ) we use it to express a prohibition, or a wish that something be not done; as

do not thou make mine enemies to rejoice at my trouble, and do not place me with the wrongdoers.
(c). i. Also we find jussives in the protasis and apodosis of correlative conditional clauses, which depend upon particle having the sense of protasis, when the verb is without 5 and is imperfect; in the apodosis, when without فَ and having an imperfect verb. Thus if they see the path of error, they will adopt í for their path; ; بِّ worthless gain come to him like it (the former) he accepts it (also); whosoever believes in God, He shall direct his heart. If however فَ فُ marks the apodosis, we must use an indicative; as whosoever believes in his Lord, does not fear.
ii. The jussive may appear in apodosis when the protasis
 and thereupon (We said) Take the tables with force, and command thy people (so) shall they grasp the best part thereof; ;َإِيٍْ (and) they shall bring thee every skilled magician; أَرِنِي أَنْظُرْ show me (Thyself, and) I shall lork upon thee. This construction is explained in $\S 413$.

Rem. $b$. The conditional sentence whose apodosis must be introduced by فَ is further treated in §587.

Rem. c. When (1) the apodosis has a jussive, connected with a following imperfect by ${ }^{\prime}$ or ${ }^{\prime}$, we usually employ the jussive
 if ye lend to God a jair loan, he will multiply it to you and will pardon you : so when (2) the protasis has a jussive, connected with the following imperfect by إِنْ تَعْفُوا وَتْصْفَّحُوا as ; or if ye condone and pardon and forgive, surely God is forgiving and merciful. Here also مَنْ يُؤْمِنْ بِآل山ِ whoso believes in God and does right, He shall efface from him his misdeeds and shall cause him to enter gardens (of Parudise).
418. The jussive is also used with the perfect's meaning, as we have seen in §412, after ó not or or not yet; but in these cases we have the jussive's form and not its sense. Thus


Note. When $\dot{\dot{j}}$ ! if precedes, we observe $\S 406 a$; thus إنْ if our Lord do not show us mercy.
419. The imperfect Energetic (see § 414) has several uses, amongst which are the following :-
(a) With $\mathcal{J}$ verily (see $\S 361 c$ ) prefixed to it in a simple as-
 thy Lord proclaimed (that) he would surely send against them one who should aftlict them with woeful torment ; and in asseverations strengthened by an oath, thus قُلْ بَلَى وَربِي كَتْبْعَشُنَّ ثُمَّ تُتَبَّبَّ بِبَا عَمِنْتُمْ say, On the contrary, by my Lord, ye shall be raised (from the dead), then ye shall be informed of what ye have done.
(c) With $\bar{\jmath}$ in the apodosis of correlative conditional clauses GR.
in which case $j$ must be prefixed to the protasis also, as verily if our Lord do not pardon us, we shall surely be of those who suffer loss.
420. The Imperative cannot be used in negative sense: instead we must employ the jussive as in $\S 417$. Thus
 "
421. The verb may govern a noun in its accusative (or oblique) case, and by help of a preposition a noun which we then put in the dependent (or oblique) case. We shall have frequent examples of this government, not only by States and Moods, but also by nomina actionis, agentis, et patientis and by other nouns possessing verbal force. Sometimes the verb is understood; or it may lie concealed in a particle.
422. The accusative of a noun is governed by the verb, either
(a) as an objective complement, assigning a limit ; or
(b) as an adverbial complement, see § 440 et seq.
423. Most transitive verbs take their objective complement
 the path of the transgressors; many however govern the object
 fell upon them; some govern in both ways with the same
 كَذَّبُوا بِآَياتِنَا We drowned those who charged with falsehood Our signs. More frequently a verb which governs in both ways has
 he held it fust; and diverse significations may attach to the same verb if used with different prepositions, thus رَغِبَ to desire, which is transitive and intransitive, has رَغبَ عَنْ , رغِبْ فِّ to like, to dislike, and رغِبَ إِّى to supplicate.

Rem. $a$. Amongst §75) we include those which govern by help of a preposition alike with those whose object is in the accusative. Besides being transitive as وَقْعَ عَلْي to fall upon, the same verb may be in-
 truth was established.

Rem. b. Dictionaries will teach a student how each verb may be employed. Be it observed that, in Arabic, verbs to come govern the accusative and require no intervening preposition, thus أَتَيْتَهُ I I came to him, أَتَيْتَهُ بَ 1 I came to her with it, i.e.

 (see § $456 b$ ).

Rem. c. A sentence may stand as objective complement, thus َزمَرْنَا مَا كَانَ يَصْنَ We destroyed what he was making (see §514). As regards $\bar{j} \bar{\prime}$ قَ to say and its derivatives we may

 to you, and what follows it is commonly a quotation, as قَأَ إَِّّكُمْ قَوْs تَجْهَنُونَ he said, Certainly ye are an ignorant people. Very sparingly, if at all, is it permitted to use قَالَ أَنَّ
424. Two objective complements in the accusative may follow certain verbs, of which there are two sorts.
(a) Ihose whose objects are unconnected, they being causatives of which the ground form is transitive and governs an accusative (see § 41 and §45); thus أُبِلْغُكُمْ رِسَارَاتٍ I bring you messages, يُغْشي شُرنَّيْلَ ألنَّهاَ He causes the night to cover the day,


 some other verbs of causative nature, meaning to give, lend, etc. as
 يَسْومْونَكُمْ وُاءْدْنَا مُوسَى سُوءَ أْلْعَابِ they lay upon you the evil of punishment Se appointed with Moses (a period of) thirty nights.
(b) Those whose objects stand to one another in the relation of subject and predicate; being (i) verbs signifying to make,

 the verbs of the heart, which are so called because their action is mental ; for instance رَأَى to see, think, know and its Iv passive

 him mentioned (lit. written).



Rem. d. Three accusatives are governed by أَفْعَالُ أْمْفَبْبَ in
 think your actions foul.
426. All verbs, transitive and intransitive, active and passive, may take their own ${ }^{\prime}$ infinitives (see § 190̆), or their deverbal nouns of the classes nomina vicis et speciei*, as objective complements in the accusative. Thus ضَربٌ he gave him a beating, ضُرْبَ ضَربٌا he received a

 رُil, and it may appear, or be eliminated: thus
 for يَطْلُبُهُ طَلَبًا حَثِثيًا he follows it in swift search. We have given (§ 202 Note)
 very severely; but the maçdar of a different form may be employed, or even of a different verb provided it be synonymous.

Note. Verbal nouns(nomina actionis agentis et patientis, etc.) can like finite verbs take ألهُهُ مُعْغِّبَرْ Gَ عَابًا شَدِيدًا God is their very severe chastiser.
427. It has been observed of nomina verbi (in $\S 195$ and $\S 421$ ) that, when infinitives from verbs which govern an objective complement in the accusative case, they can govern an accusative instead of a dependent. This is especially the case if one or more

[^7]words divide an object from its governing infinitive, because a dependent case cannot be separated from the word which governs it. Also, when an infinitive is defined by the article, its object must stand in the accusative, because the noun so defined cannot take after it a dependent.

Rem. c. Beside infinitives (nomina actionis) there are verbal nouns of similar force and significance which govern in the same way.
428. With rare exceptions, infinitives govern by help of a preposition, when from verbs which are transitive in that manner.
429. Frequently however an infinitive governs its objective complement in the dependent with $ل$ (see § 453) instead of in the accusative. Thus كَتَبْنَا تَفْصِيلً رِكُلّح شَيْ We wrote an exposition of every thing. So it is with certain other verbal nouns.
430. Nomina agentis can, like infinitives, govern a noun in the accusative, as أَلُّهُ مُعَذِّبَ الْقْوَوْمَ God is a chastiser of the
 destroyer of the people.

Note. When derived from verbs which are transitive by help of a preposition, nomina agentis must govern in the same way. Thus verily to our Lord shall we return; كَذَّبُوا بِآَيَتِنَا وَكَانُوا عَهْهَا غَافِلِينَ they denied Our signs, and were

 people of Hell-fire, abiding therein.
431. What has been said in $\S 429$ concerning $\bigcup$, after an infinitive, applies equally to a nomen agentis.

Rem. When by rhetorical transposition a finite verb, which is transitive without help from a preposition, follows its object, we may use the accusative, as مَا ظَلَهُونَا وَلْكِنْ كَانُوا أَنْفْسِهْمَ يَظْلْمُونَ they did not injure Us, but they were injuring themselves; or we
 In like case a nomen agentis cannot govern an accusative but requires لِ thus in ye dislike her. If the transposed object be a pronominal suffix, إِّا may with the finite verb be employed instead of $\bigcup$ as in $\S 189 b$.
433. Beside the nomina agentis, some other verbal adjectives govern either an accusative case or $ل \underset{\sim}{\text { with }}$ the dependent.

Note. When derived from verbs which are transitive by help of a preposition, these adjectives govern in the same way. Thus binding upon me, هُقِيقَّ عَلَيَّ for everything, أللَّ بِكُلّ شَهْ عَلِّيّْ God is acquainted with everything.
435. Frequently the accusative depends upon a verb which is مَ eliminated :-
(a) In phrases of command, exclamations, etc. we must supply the verb to which the accusative noun serves as الْ الْ

 hear well and implicitly obey.

Note. The Arabian grammarians represent that سْبْحَانَكَ stands for أَسْسَحُ سُبْـَانَانَكِ I praise Thine absolute perfection (see § 41, rem. c).
(b) In other cases the verb must be conjectured, as وَهْلًا وَسْهْ where we may supply أَتَيْتَ thou hast come to people and a plain, ie. to friends and a smooth place; وَجْدتَّ thou hast found for thyself roominess (see § 27 Note); رِجْتَلَ
 behind thee.
436. The adverb إِنَّ and the conjunction أَنَّ أِّنَ take the following noun or pronoun in the accusative case instead of in the nominative (as one expects the subject of a sentence to be) because, so it is said, these particles embody the verb to see;
 (أَوْلِ يَعْلَهُونَ أَنَّ اُللَهَ يَعْلَمُ هَا يُسِرُّونَ وَمَا يُعْلُنونَ know that God knows what they conceal and what they reveal? So in case of their compounds وَنَّنَّ § $58 \pm$ b) but, yet, with a preposition, as بَلْكِنَّ أَكْثْرَهُمْ لَن يَعْلْهُونَ but most of them do not know,
 In the above examples the subject immediately follows إنَّ etc. and under such circumstances $\bar{\jmath}$ (see $\S 361$ c) may be prefixed to the predicate; thus verily we perceive thee

thy Lord is prompt with chastisement and certainly He is forgiving and merciful. There may however be a separation, between إِنَّ etc. and the subject, caused by an adverb of time and place or by a preposition with its complement; thus verily enemies of you are (to be found) amongst your spouses and children: when this separation occurs J may be prefixed to the subject of أَنَّ or as
 predicate be negative we must not use لَ لَّنَّهُ لَ
 أَجْر أْمُصْلِحِينَ the righteous: and so if the verb be a perfect without ${ }^{\circ}$, thus إِنَّ أْلْقَوْرَ أَسْتَغْعَغُونِي وَكَادُوا يَقْتُلُونَنِي surely the people despised me and were just on the point of slaying me.

Rem. $a$. These particles, together with those given in rem. $f$, are named إِنَّ وأَخَوَاتُهُ 'inna and its sisters. The word governed


Rem. b. If the predicate is placed between أَنَّ and its noun, the logical emphasis falls upon the latter, thus
 follows the noun, it receives the logical emphasis itself, as your friend is with you.

Rem. d. In §353* we have mentioned áaícioil io the hindering
 by a nominative; thus
 a temptation. The same influence is exercised by ضَهِّرُ (see $\S 362 \mathrm{~m}$ and $\S 367 \mathrm{~g}$ ) as إِنَّهُ كِرَامُ قَوْمْاَكْ truly thy people are generous.

Ren. e. A lightened form of these particles may be used.
Rem. f. The words لَيْتَ would that and or oَ govern an accusative like إِنَّ etc., thus لَعَّنُّْْ تَذَكَّرُورنَ perhaps ye will take warning.
438. An interjection usually precedes the person or thing called; while for vocative case we must use the nominative or accusative.
(a) As has been noted in $\$ 368$ ي́ 0 ! takes its following noun without the article.
(i) We use the nominative-in the singular without tanwin -when a particular person or thing is addressed by the speaker directly and without explanatory term ; thus يَا مُحْ O Muhammad! ! يَا رجّلُ O man! or Sir, قَالَ مُوسَى يَا فَرعْوْنْ Moses said, O Pharaoh!
(ii) We use the accusative when the person or thing called is indefinite and not directly addressed, يَا رَجْلًا somebody!; as also when an explanatory term is appended, thus بَا بَنْي إِسْرأَرِيَا O sons of Israel! بَا إْخَتَتَنَا O brothers of ours!

Rem. $a$. These rules hold good in the absence of an interjection, as رَبَّنَا أَفْرِغْ عَلَيْنَا صَبْرًا O our Lord, pour upon us patience.

Rem. b. In the vocative $\mathbf{~ - ~ i s ~ u s u a l l y ~ s h o r t e n e d ~ i n t o ~ - ~}$ (see § 317, rem. b), thus يَا قَوْمِ O my people! رَبْ o my Lord!
but this abbreviation is not permitted with derivatives ending in $ی$ 三 or = from verbs whose final radical is 9 or . Beside
 (Aaron) said, $O$ son of my mother !

Rem. d. One word only, viz. اللّه, may retain the article and

 or plural, must be nominative and defined by the article ; thus O ye who believe!
439. When $\bar{y}$ is immediately followed by an indefinite object and denies its existence we make the noun accusative and, if possible, we omit tanwin; as ألهُّ لَ إِلَهَ إَِّّ هُو God, there is no god but He. Should an explanatory term follow, tanwîn is retained ; as Corân by heart amongst you.
440. We have been treating objective complements since $\S 422$ and shall now consider the adverbial complement. This sort of accusative depends ( $\alpha$ ) when expressed by exist (and by certain similar verbs, see §442) on the idea of existence or being, which is limited and determined by the accusative ; and (b) on circumstances detailed in § 443 et seq.
441. When employed as the *logical copula كَانَ اُلنَّاقِصَةُ the incomplete kâna because to complete the sense

[^8]there is required an attribute, which we must put in the accusa-
 وَكَانُوا ظَالِمينَ


 thou (one) of the grateful, which is equivalent (see |  |
| :---: | $48 f$ ) to . كَ كَانَ قِرْ there was an ape: here the verb is complete kána, because it contains the attribute and requires no



Rem. a. The subject is called in im and the predicate خَبرٌ كَانَ predicate ; this order may however be varied if sense allow.

 it will be better for your souls, where
442. The same construction appertains to أَخَوْاتُ كَانَ the sisters of hana which are often used as synonyms of كَ relation to time, though they add some modification to the simple idea of existence. In this class are בر ב , to continue, - بَقِّيَ - to to become, to be or do all day and not a few others, most of which may be تَأَّمَ : while
 thus

Rem. g. Instead of an accusative or a preposition with its dependent أَخَوْاتُ كَانَ may take as attribute a verb in the imperfect, thus following the analogy of كَانَ (see § $408 d$ and e, and $\S 409$ ). With this construction we can connect that of أَفْعَارُ الْمْتَارَبْةَ (1) Amongst those which indicate simple proximity of the predicate is (see § 157) to be just on the point of : commonly its predicate is an imperfect indicative, thus كَادُوا يَقْتُلُونَنِي they were on the point of killing me. (2) Amongst those which indicate a hope of the predicate's occurrence is שَسیى perhaps: commonly it is construed with í í and the subjunctive, as your Lord may perhaps destroy your. enemy ; but it can take as accusative a pronominal suffix like لَ لَ
443. Brief allusion has been made in $\S 440 b$ to other adverbial accusatives which determine and limit the subject, verb, or predicate of a sentence, and sometimes the sentence as a whole. These adverbial accusatives are of different sorts and indicate :-
444. (a) The time in or during which an act occurs; as خَـالدُدونَ فِيها أَبَبَا when their fish came to them on the day of their sabbath.
(b) Locality, direction, and extension, may in certain cases take the accusative ; as نَظَرَ يَهِينًا وَيْسَارًا he looked right and left. Of this sort are the words given as prepositions in $\S 359$.

Rem. $a$. We must use in, when the place is definitely specified, as $I$ stopped at the place where al Husuin was killd. But with a verb meaning to remain
 without preposition and therefore in the accusative; thus


Note. Certain substantives signifying time or place can be مُضَافُ annexed (see $\S 475$ and §478) to a verbal sentence, but
 on the day on which they did not keep sabbath, fish did not come to them.

Rem. $b$. The accusative of time and place, illustrated in above examples of this section, is called آلظَّرْفُ the ressel (see § 221, rem. a) or فَالْمَفْعُولُ
(c) The most important however of adverbial accusatives is called أْ in the state or condition, i.e. of the subject or object or of both, while the act is happening. Thus لَّهَّ رَجْع مُوسْى إِّى قَوْهِهِ غَضْبَانَ أَسِفًا
 He it is who sends the winds, heralds of His mercy lit. between the two hands of His mercy i.e. in
 thrown down prostrate (adoring).

Rem. a. The ḥâl is فُرْعْوا رَبَّكْمْ a redundancy; thus تَضَرُّاءًا وَخْفْيَةً call upon your Lord humbly and in secret. Here the command to pray is of itself a sentence ; and the conditions,
grammatically superfluous, reply to called أَحْحَالُ must always do.

Ren. b. The ḥâl depends upon a regent (عِ) may be (1) a verb, as خَرَّ مُوسَى صَعِقًا Moses fell down thunder-
 verily I am God's apostle to you all, where رُسوّل is accounted a deverbal adjective, إِنِي رسّولُ being equivalent to أُرسْلْتُ $I$ have been sent; or (3) a demonstrative pronoun or other ex-
 these are the people of the fire, dwelling continually therein, where


Ren. c. The ḥâl is (1) usually صِفَةٌ an adjective expressing
 manifestly : though the adjective may express a permanent state,

 He created the sun and the moon and the stars, held in ( a state of) subjection by His command. Sometimes however (2) it is an infinitive with the meaning of a participial adjective,


 them the deluge and locusts and lice and frogs and blood (in the nature of) signs, separated by intervals. Lastly (4) hâl may be a proposition, as in §583. There may be more than one hâ̂l, with or without' 'and between them, as can be seen above.

Rem. e. In all our examples hâl is is indefinite, and this is most usual.

Rem. $f$. We call the subject or object to which a hâal refers
 happens in all our examples.

Nore. Occasionally is eliminated, as صَاحِبُ آْحَّبَالِ in خَبْبَ as to that (land) which was bad its
 supplied as çâhib to

Rem. g. Also it will be observed that in all our examples the hâl is placed after its regent: as a rule it occupies this position.
(d) The accusative may express an agent's motive and object in the act, its cause and reason; as call ye upon Him out of fear and eager desire. Definition by the article is unusual, this accusative being indefinite except when in construct state (see § 475).

Rem. Only مُصْترُ قَلْبُئّ a mental or intellectual infinitive can be employed in this way; thus, in Koran, vII. 164 مُعْذِرَ (we warn them) by way of excusing (ourselves). Reply is given to the question ơ why? (see § 351, rem.).
(e) Other determinations and limitations of the predicate
 thus طَابَ دَآَودُ نَفْسًا David is cheerful in spirit.
 It must be an indefinite substantive.

Rem. b. We have mentioned in $\S \S 322$ and 323 the accusative which follows cardinal numbers from 11 to 99 inclusive : it is of
 and is most usually singular, see § 499.
446. Relations of time and place are designated by prepositions, as also are many ideal conceptions. We shall treat those mentioned in § 447 as indicating motion from, in § 450 motion towards, and in § 454 rest at a place ; while in § 470 compound prepositions will be found, over and above those detailed by § 355 et seq.
447. The prepositions indicating motion from or away from a place, are out of, from, and
448. We designate by help of
 فَأَرْمَلْنَا عَلَيْرِ رِجْزًا مِنْ
 from a contrary i.e. on opposite sides. Hence it is used with verbs which indicate liberating, preserving, warning, etc. as We delivered you from Pharaoh's people,
 the Hegira i.e. from 622 add.

Rem. a When used in any of the above significations, we say that employed is en

* 'admonutor coucenin's' Sale 92.13f.b. 11
(c) The causal point of departure, the origin and source
 on, an admonition has come to you from your Lord,
四 thou dost not resent anything of which we are the origin except that we believed the signs of our Lord when they came to us.

Rem. a. Here هِ is employed
(d) The distance from anything, especially after words signifrying proximity, when in English we must render $\underset{\sim}{0}$ to; thus surely the mercy of God is near to the righteous.
(e) The difference between two things when compared: hence the use of with an elative (see $\S 234$ ) when com-


Rem. a. Sometimes $\underset{\sim}{0}$ with its complement is omitted; as the last abode is better than this world for those who take heed to themselves, where مِنَ الْدَّنْيَا may be supplied.
( $f$ ) The relationship between part and whole, between species and genus ; thus قَالَ نَعَمْ وَإِنَّرْمْ لَهِنَ أْمْقَرَّبَّبينَ he said, Yes, and ye shall be of those who are brought near (me), الَهْهَلُ هِنْ قَوْرِ فِرْعَوْنِ
 inhabit this village and eat therefrom, أَسُّفَآَ us.

Rem. a. Preceding a definite noun, which is usually plural,
 in eat of the good things. Together with an indefinite dependent $\underset{\sim}{\text { On }}$ may be subject of a sentence as in the following:嘼 no mischance befalls except by permission of God.

Rem. b. Governing an indefinite noun after a negative particle, $\operatorname{\text {onggivestheclauseanabsoluteandgeneralsense;thus}}$ كَ ye have no god whatever.

Rem. e. In these examples $\sin$ is used to indicate division into parts, as also in أَخْرجْنَا مِنْ كُلِّ نٌ We produced all sorts of fruit ; sometimes it is employed indicate composition.
(g) After indefinite Lós and whatever we must use before the explanatory word ; thus ever thou bringest us of a sign: in this case we have a general term rendered more definite, as also when indicates the material of which an article has been made; thus
 a calf (made) out of their ornaments.

Rem. Here هِن is employed to explain.

 visited the people of Pharaoh with years (of barrenness) and with diminution of fruit.
 We took vengeance on them.

449．By help of ${ }^{\circ}$ fe we designate distance from，motion away from，and the like ：hence it is used
（a）after verbs which denote setting free，forbidding，etc．as
屏 he forbids them from the disapproved．
（b）After verbs which imply the removal of a covering，as


（c）After verbs which imply turning away，as sَانُوْا they were neglectors of it，تَافِلِينَ him his misdeeds，لَمَّا سَكَتَ عَنْ هُوْسَى آْغْضَبُ when the anger became still（so as to be）away from Moses，سَأَصْرِفُ عَنْ آَيَاِتي $I$ will cause to turn away from（the direction of）my signs， عَتَوْا عَمَّا غَعتَا they disdainfully turned away from that from which he turned disdainfully，رَغبَ عَنْهُ he avoided it．

450．The prepositions indicating motion to or towards a


451．Opposed to
（a）motion or direction to or towards a place；thus أَرْسَنْ We sent Noah unto his people，نُو⿱ًا إِّى قَوْمِهِ
 mountain，أَوْحَيْنَا إِّى مُونَّى We revealed i．e．indicated to Moses． Hence，because inclination is implied，إٕسى follows verbs of excusing and repenting ；thus تُبْتُ Iإِنَّ I repent toward Thee，促
(b). In respect of time usually indicates during a con-
 all the time till the day of judgement.

Rem. When used in the above significations, we say that إِى is employed
(c) To show that one thing is added to another we use إلَى and hence إِّى آَحِره (see § 23, rem. d) to its end, which is definite but serves for etcetera.
452. In addition to implying like إِّى motion towards an object, حَنَّ must indicate arrival.
 no governing power upon nouns.
453. Whenever possible $ل$ must be so translated as to indicate abstract relations, those that are concrete being expressed
 $\underset{y}{*}$ Oe drove it for the use of a dead country. This distinction cannot always be preserved as is shown by $\$ 8429$ et seq. where $ل$ indicates an action's relation to the direct object which stands in
 (see § 423). More often however we employ لِ
(a) for passing on the action to an indirect object; as

 $\sin )$ to us and have mercy upon us: so with reflexive verbs, which
 when his Lord manifested Himself to the mountain, and we find
 the beholders; also by taking praise as the direct object, we may place here يُسِّ whatsoever is in heaven gives praise to God; and unless wholly idiomatic ís he believed in thee. In these cases $\underset{\sim}{\text { and }}$ and its dependent are not essential to the clause, whereas it is different in
(b) the dative (i) of possession; as $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\prime}$ Him belong the dominion and the praise, to it is the (power of) lowing, يُعْكُفُونَ عَلَى أَصْنَامٍ لَهْمَ they cling

 he makes lawful to them the good things, in í I give thee permission: (iii) of advantage, contrasting with عَلَى (see § 459 b );
 cursed him; also a guidance and a mercy
 "رَّ advantage in this world and in the next, كَّ to us.

Rem. b. By use of $\bigcup$ we express the verb to have, as

(c) Attention is drawn by J to the purpose or cause of an act ; thus وَإِذْ قَالَتْ أُمَّةُ هِنْهُ كِرَ تَعِظُونَ أْقْوَمْر and when a section of them asked, Why do


نُصَرِفُ أْحْيَاتِ لِقَوْمٍ We diversify the signs for the use of a people,促 He shall gather you for the sake of (what is in) the day of assemblage (of the angels) i.e. the day of judgement*.

Rem. Here is employed لِلتَّعْيْلِ to indicate the cause.
 and when Moses had come to Our appointed time, on Moslem new year's day lit. at a point of time when a night has passed from Muharram †.

Note. Many verbs indicating a state of mind, friendly or hostile, advantageous or disadvantageous, take $\bigcup$ of the person towards whom the feeling is directed ; thus عَدِيتٌ I hate him.
454. The prepositions indicating rest at a place are in, into, بִ at, in, by, with, in with, along with, beside, near, and عَعَى over, above, upon.
455. We designate by help of
(a) rest in a place or during a time, and motion into a place, as is in heaven and earth, خَأَقَهَا فِي سِتَّة أَيَّامٍ He created them in
 the tables, لَهَّا سُقِطَ فِى أَيْدِيهِمْ when a falling took place into

[^9]their hands ie. when they grievously repented, in
侱 send gatherers into the cities. This meaning
 or pardon (the sin) to me and my brother and cause us to enter into Thy mercy.
(b) By rights means in the midst of as may well be seen with a plural or collective ; thus قَالَ مُوسَى لَِحْيِه هُرْونَ أْحْلُغْنِي Moses said to his brother Aaron, Do thou act as my deputy among my people, and behave uprightly.
(c) We use فیى to state the subject of thought, conversation, treating of the $A$ arabic language.
(d) Further فَغِبَ فِيهِ is employed with verbs of desire, as he liked it.

Rem. We say that فِي is used to indicate time and place.


456. Whereas indicates amongst we more often express with بَرْرْتُ بِرجّلٍ I mere proximity; thus passed by a man,
 it with force, يَطَّيَرُوا بِهْوسَى they associate bad luck with Moses,
 بِاتْحَقِّ He created the heavens and the earth rightly. Accordingly
verbs with certain meanings govern $ب$ and its dependent in place of an accusative ; thus بَصُرْتُ بِهَا كَمْ يَبْصرُوا I I saw that which
 anything of His knowledge,
 hold fast to the book, أَبْتَبئُ دِسْمِ ألهُ I I begin with the name of God ; and $ب$ with its dependent may take the place of a second accusative, thus
 days of God. Sometimes a verb governs in both ways with the same meaning (see §423); thus أَخَخَ بِرأْسِ أَسِّيه he seized the head of his brother, and drowsiness does not seize Him nor sleep ; ل山ّ للُ ask assistunce of God, and Thee only do we worship and of Thee alone we ask assistance; ; ظَلَهُوْا بِها they treated it unjustly, and感 they did not injure Us. Under this general idea of contact are represented the following.
(a) The relation between subject and predicate, especially in negative propositions; as oَ wo are not believers.
(b) The relation between an act and its object, especially
 he commands the approved to them; ; آحنَّ we have believed, but آمَنَّا بِربِ أْلْعَالَِمينَ we have believed the Lord of the worlds: we notice this particularly after those indicating motion, which must
then be translated by transitive verbs (see § 423 , rem. $b$ ); thus

 caused the children of Israel to traverse the sea.
(c) The relation between an act and its instrument or reason; thus this shall be because God
 We caused to descend by means of cloud the water, and we produced by means of it (the ruin) all sorts of fruits, بِإِنْ il by God's permission,
 بِعَصَاكَ اiْ 1 and We revealed to Moses, when his people asked drink of him, saying (see § 367 e) Strike the stone with thy rod, وَا كَزْلِكَ نْبْلُوهُمْ بِهَا كَانُوا يَفْسُقُونَ
 ؤَأَتْمَنْنَاهَا بِعَشْرٍ We appointed with Moses (a period of) thirty nights and We completed them by means of ten (more), إذّي
 thee above (all) men by reason of (My putting thee in charge of) My messages and because of My speaking (to thee).

Rem. c. To express without we can use بَغْرَ يتَكَبَّرُونَ فِي أْنَرْضِ بِغَيْرِ انْحَقِّ earth without justice.

Rev. d. Some would place in this sub-section by the name of God while others supply أَبْتَدِئُ as above.

Rem. e. Arabian grammarians have divers expressions to denote the uses of $ب$.

Note. We find بَ غَّوّوا أَنَّهُ وَاقْعُ بِهِمْ
457. By help of (ó) with, along with, we indicate association and connection in time or place ; thus أَرسِلْهُ مَعِي send him with me: there are also less usual meanings.
459. We employ عَ over, upon, above
(a) in its local sense ; thus وَكَلَّلْنَا عَلَيْهِمْ أْلْعَهَامَ and We
 He established Himself upon the throne: and a similar sense may

 manna and quail, أَخَافُ عَيْيْكُمْ عَذَابًا I fear in your case a punishment, عَكَى أللَه فَلْيَتَوَكَّلِ أْلْمُوْمِنُونَ upon God then let the believers
 ings.
(b) As implying disadvantage (see $\S 453 b$ iii); thus غَضِبَ
 against them. Also we use عَ عَ $^{\text {after words signifying difficulty }}$



distinct delivery is incumbent upon Our apostle, orn is not the covenunt of the book taken upon them,的 it is linding upon me.
(d) To show superiority in one over another; thus فَضَّلَكُمْ
 كُلّلِ شَيْء قَدِيرَ
(e) To give the condition serving as basis upon which a
 Christian religion.
(j) To indicate the subject spoken of; thus أَنْ لَ يَقُولُوا
 than the truth.
 an admonition has come to you through one of yourselves.
 stantive follows and there is no verb of swearing. The complement (جَوَابُ الْْْقَسَهِمَ) may be an affirmative verbal proposition, and the verb may be imperfect, in which case $\bar{J}$ is prefixed to the energetic form; thus وَرْبِّي كَتْبْعَشُنَّنَّ by by Lord, ye shall be raised.
463. While commonly reckoned among prepositions śss, like is a substantive and synonymous with مِشْ likeness (see § $482 f$ ). We find it in كَذَا的 as though.
 (see §353*), thus make for us a god like their gods.
466. To signify at the side of we employ عَآل山هُ ; thus بِهَا عَهَِ , عِنْهُ أَجْرَ عَظِيمُ يَجِجُدونَهُ
 with them i.e. mentioned in the Old Testament and Gospel, أَلَّ إِنَّهـا
 hidden in the counsels of God. When used of time may
 at the time of writing it.
467. Signifying between indicates an intervening space, thus بَيْنَ ألطُّوفَانِ وَبْيْنَ ألْهِجْرَ between the Flood and the Hegira. Of common occurrence is بَيْنَ يَدِيْنَ between his two hands i.e. in his presence, and بَيْنَ أَيْدِيرِمْ between their hands i.e. before them; thus بَيْنَ يَدَيْ رَهْتَهِ before his mercy.
468. Signifying beneath تَتَتْتَ indicates the lower part; thus under the tree.

Rem. b. Its opposite is وَهُو أْنَقَاهِرُ فَوْقَ عِبَادِه above ; as فَوْ and He is all-powerful over His servants.
469. Signifying below دُونَ often indicates something inferior, and
(e) that a quality belonging to one is not possessed by
 among them and those who are not that are among them.

Rem. Beside بُوْنَ nouns in the accusative (see $\$ \$ 359$ and $444 b$ ) which are employed as prepositions: for instance,
 have ye believed Him before that I gave you permission. Its opposite is بَلْ تَنْ do not ye commit disorders in the earth after its ordering.

 is before them and what behind i.e. what is and shall be.
470. Compound prepositions have usually $\dot{\sim}$ as the first part, and the second part must be in dependent case. Thus
 and He shall cause him to enter gardens under which flow the runnels of water.

 (the aforesaid) We sent Moses, بَعْنُ evil have ye wrought in mine absence after my departure, الَّزِينَ عَهِمُوا ألسَّسًَّاتِ تُمَّهَ تَابُوا هِنْ بَعْدِهَا those who do evil things (and) then after that repent.

Rem. e. The construction may sometimes be made more
concise by omission of a preposition ; thus وْخْتَارَ مُوسَى قَوْمَهُ and Moses chose from his people seventy men for Our appointed time.
471. The infinitive (see $\$ \$ 195$ and 426 to 429 ) like other nouns is indefinite unless defined by the article or otherwise;

 الْ a god), wrath shall overtake them from their Lord, and ignominy
 of excusing (ourselves) to your Lord.
472. The rection* of nomina agentis has been treated in $\S \mathrm{S}^{2} 30,431$. They and nomina patientis (originally adjectives, see $\S 80$ ) are frequently used as concrete verbal nouns, designating a person or thing to which the verbal idea closely attaches itself, while remaining immovable. The Imperfect is nearly akin but being part of a finite verb indicates motion or renewal.

Note. We retain Professor Wright's term nomen concretum verbale, though it might perhaps be as well to employ the word participle, here and elsewhere.
473. For a specific indication of time we must look to some
 نِسَاَتهُمْ وَإِنَّا فَوْقَهُمْ قَاهِرْونَ he answered, We will massacre their

[^10]sons and we will save alive their daughters (lit. women) and verily we shall be subduers over them, where í gives a future sense to all three clauses.
(a) In a clause which is not circumstantial the concrete verbal noun refers to a present or future time ; thus فَلَمَّا كَشَفْنَا but when We removed from them the plague until a fixed term, which they were about to uttain ; وي as to these people destroyed is that (religion) in which they were, and rain is what they were making; ${ }^{5}$ وَمِنْكُمْ مُؤْمِنْ $H$ He it is who created you, and one of you is an un-

 us we do not believe in thee.
(b) But the concrete verbal noun in a circumstantial clause refers to the same period of time as the ruling verb; see § 583. The Imperfect Indicative will be found used in nearly the same way; see § 408 e.
474. When attached to a verb as adverbial accusative (see $\S 444 c$ ) a concrete verbal noun refers to the same period of time as the verb itself; thus
 them enter gardens to abide therein, an instance of ${ }^{\circ}$ indicating the future.
475. A noun, when governing another noun in the dependent case, is called by the Arabians sُضصر anexed, and is said by European grammarians to be in construct state. It is shortened in pronunciation by omission of tanwin or of the terminations and $\dot{\mathcal{U}}$, in order that the speaker may pass quickly to the governed word, which is called inat to which annexation is made. Their relationship is known as

Rem. There are two kinds of annexation proper annexation and ine improper annex-
 defined; in the latter it can only be نَبَرَّ is prefixed, see $\$ 489$.
476. In the construct state of a governing noun, followed immediately by the dependent of a governed, can be represented all ideas which we express in English with the preposition of. Thus سُورةُ الْبْقَرَةِ a che in presence of the sea i.e. situated by the sea, إِنْ يَروْا سَبِيَ آلرُّشّْ if they see the path of true direction. A word may be governing and

 have ye hastened the affair of your Lord?
478. (a) The governed word (أَلْمُصَافُ إِلَيْهِ 1 ) in proper annexation may be nomen substantivum*, a pronoun or other word

[^11]regarded as a substantive, or an entire clause (see § 488). Thus

 and those who deny Our signs and the meeting of the last (dwelling),

 story of those who disbelieved.
(b) The governing word (i.e. the one in construct state) must in proper annexation be nomen substantivum* in which category are accounted prepositions, as its ordering; so also are numerals, for which see $\S 496$ et seq.

 well acquainted with what is in possession of the breasts. An adjective in construct state is improperly annexed (see § 489) unless, as in the following examples, standing in the position of a defined noun so as to have the force of a substantive; thus an the handsome (part) of the face or even the handsome
 manifest. As regards superlatives, see $\$ \S 486$ and 493.

Rem. $a$. In proper annexation the article $j i l$ can never be prefixed to

Note. The annexed word can be governed by a verb مَحْنُوفُ eliminated, as ئِوْ يَ make mention of the day whereon He shall gather you for the day of

[^12]assembly, this will be the day of general deception : here we must prefix أْذْرُ.
480. Instead of having an adjective attached to it, a noun may be in construct state qualified by another noun; as رَجْلُ a sincere man: this is common in specifying the material, as
482. The following substantives are used to express the whole, the part, the like, and the different, by being annexed (مُضَفُف) to a dependent.
(a) كُسُّ the totality, the whole. If the leading substantive is defined and signifies something single and indivisible, means whole as كُلُّ أْنْيْتْ the whole house; if it is definite but
 the fruits, كُلُّ أْنْقَقَ all the cattle; if it is indefinite each, every, as إِنْ يَرْوَا sign they will not believe in it, رَمْتَي وَسِعَتْ كُلَّ شَيٍْ My mercy comprises everything. In $\S 402 a$ will be found every tribe: here, as may be learned from the context, أُنَاس is collective (see § 305, rem. e) but is used as a singular.
(b) جَهْیْ the totality, the whole, much resembles may however say إِلْيُمْ جَهِيعَا but not إِيْمُمْ
(d) ${ }^{50}{ }^{50}$ غَ something different may usually be translated other
 12-2
have no god other than Him; ;


 rem. $c$.

Rem. $a$. We employ غَغْ impossible; but if repetition be needed we must after the first

 upon whom Thou hast shed blessing, other than those who are the objects of (Thine) anger and are in error.
(f) مثْنُ likeness, like, as the like of it, like it.

Rem. $a$. Similar in sense to 0 , of but without case signs, is〕́ see § 463 .
486. Properly annexed, in construct state, are found deverbal

 art the most merciful of the merciful, وأَنْتَ خَيْر الْ Thou art the best of those who pardon. Here one item is made to stand prominently out of a whole designated by the dependent; and being in this annexation definite substantives (see $\$ 478$ b ( (see §493, rem. a), thus أَكْهِرْ أْمْتَأَئِن the greatest of the cities, أَحْسَنُهُ

Rem. a. Being superlative $\begin{aligned} & \text { أَوَّ } \\ & \text { first stands in annexation of }\end{aligned}$ the same sort, thus أَنَا أَوَّل أْمْهُوْمِنْينَ I am the first of the believers. The other ordnal numbers ought not so to be used, for they are nomina agentis from transitive verbs, see § 328.
488. When أَنِ أَلْمَصْدَرِيَّةُ the 'an which with its verb is equivalent to a maçdar (see § 195) and the same construction appertains to the indefinite is (see
 were afflicted before that thou camest to us and after that thou hast come, which is equivalent to مِنْ قَبْلِ إِتْيَانِكَ إِيَّنَا وَرِّنْ before thy coming to us and after thy coming to us. Clauses of this sort frequently stand as آْلْمَفَافُ إِلَيْمَ second member of an annexation, see § $478 a$ ) in lieu of a dependent.
489. When improperly annexed the noun in construct state must be an adjective, thus سَسِسِّنُ أْوَجْهُ handsome of face آلْعََِابِ prompt of chastisement. Here the dependent though always defined by the article exercises no defining influence upon its governing word, which remains زَكْرَّ (see § 475, rem.) and can be defined by the article, thus أل山ُ ألسَّرِيُعُ ْالْعِعَابِر God the prompt to punish*.
490. Except by poetic licence, nothing can intervene between a noun in construct state and its following dependent, consequently an adjective qualifying the first member must be placed

[^13] praise belongs to God, the Lord of the worlds, the compassionate and merciful.
492. In proper annexation if the second member be indefinite إنِّي أَاْحافُ عَلْيُمْمْ عَذَابَ يَوْمٍ عَظِيمٍ verily I fear in your case a punishment of a great day. But if the second member be definite so is the first, as أَوْرَنْنَا أْلْقَوْمْ
 parts of the land and the western parts of $i t$. If we desire that the first noun be indefinite while the second is definite we must employ the preposition لِبْنُ لِّرَّجِلِ a son of the man (see $\S 453 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{i}$ ): certain words of wide signification may however remain indefinite even when followed by a definite dependent.
493. The examples in § 480 have each its dependent (اَلْهُضَانُف إِلَيْهِ) definite and therefore partitive: if indefinite the
 excellent women, أللّه خَيْر خَاءً God is the best preserver. After the superlatives أَوَّرُ first and last the indefinite dependent is likewise explicative ; thus أَوَّلُ آَّةٍ the first verse, آَحر يَوٍْ the last day.

Rem. $a$. If the dependent be definite the noun in construct state (أَمْضَضافُفَ) may resume its characteristic attribute as an adjective and conform in number and gender to the object or objects mentioned ; thus it is the largest of the cities,
494. Attention has been drawn in $\S 480$ to a way of specifying the material from which any thing is made : this also may be done by putting the material in apposition to the object, both being وَأَتَّخَنَ قَوْرُ مُوسَى مِنْ بَعْهِ and the people of Moses after his departure took for themselves (as god) a calf of red gold.
495. Of two things which are identical, the second may be in dependent case and the first in construct state.
(b) This happens when a specific noun is preceded by a substantive designating the genus, as سُورةٌ צَاتِحَة أْلْكَتَابِ equivalent
 of the book.
496. It has been mentioned in $\S 321$ that cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 , when in apposition to the things numbered, agree with them in case ; but when placed in annexation before them (see $\S 478$ b) govern a plural dependent. A plural of paucity (see $\S 307$ ) must be employed if the substantive have one; thus
 earth in six days.
 singular, always follows the governing numeral, see § 325 .

Rem. b. Should بَمْ the plural of paucity not be in common use, there must perforce be employed $\begin{gathered}0 \\ 0\end{gathered}$ plural of abundance.

REM. c. We must remember that a sound plural is plural of
paucity, thus its verses are seven in number; ( آ is a generic noun which forms a nomen unitatis, being also a plural of abundance, see $\S 304$, No. 28 and $\S 306$, rem. $a$ ). If however an adjective specifies the objects numbered, employed as in $\S 448 f$; or the noun must be put in apposition to
 six believing women.
499. We have seen $\S 444 e$, rem. $b$, that cardinal numbers from 11 to 99 take their objects numbered in the accusative singular ; thus إْخَتارَ مُوسَى قَوْمَهُ سَبْعِينَ رجّاً Moses chose from
 written at Mecca and it (has) eighteen verses. Very rarely they are followed by an accusative plural, as أْتْنَا sَشْرَةَ أَمْمَا
 but units conform to the gender of the noun denoting the objects numbered, thus twelve springs gushed

506. Cardinal numbers agree in gender with nouns denoting the objects numbered according to the following rules; there being constantly borne in mind the peculiarity explained at § 319 .
(a) The numeral agrees in gender with the singular of the substantive denoting the objects numbered, even if the plural is of different gender; as ive years (the singular


(b) When the objects numbered are designated by a noun of general signification, its grammatical gender is usually followed
 being masculine). But if another substantive be attached which determines more precisely the real gender of the objects, then the numeral agrees with the second noun ; thus قَطَّعْنَا عَشْرَة أَهَبْاطَا أُمْهَا We divided them into twelve tribes (i.e.) nations

512. To every ${ }^{\text {جُمْتَ }}$ totality, sentence there must be a subject
 supported, the attribute. The subject is called by which (the attribute) is supported, and the relation between
 attribution.
513. The subject may be a noun substantive, as هِنْ قَوْمِهِ the chieftains of his people answered; or an expressed

 in the verb*, as أَغْرَنْاهُمْ فِي أْمْيْمِ We drowned them in the sea, He giveth life and causeth to die; or a conjunctive

[^14] there praises God whatsoever is in heaven and in earth, زیعَ

 the good are among them, and those who are not that are among them. The predicate may be a noun (substantive or adjective), as وُوكْنِّي رسّولُ مِنْ رَبِ أْعَالَهِينَ but I am an apostle from the
 or a verb, as فَكَّهَا أَفَاقَ هُوسَى so when Moses awoke ; or a preposition with its dependent, as $a_{n} \circ \circ$ they are in it ; or an adverb,
 He is your Creator, هُ هُذَا فَا فَعَلَ this is uhat did it or this is what he did. Be the predicate what it may, every sentence beginning with its subject is (which may be simple or compound, see $\S \S 519$ and 520 ), thus
 surely the earth belongs to God, , مُوسَى أَفَأَقَ Moscs awoke. On
 compound) any one in which the predicate is a verb preceding
 the guarding of them both does not weary Him; or in which the verb represents both subject and predicate, thus تَوَوَّوْ they turned aside. The subject of a nominal sentence is termed ${ }^{2}$ inchoatice (except when put in the accusative by a preceding for it is then known as

آلْخْر the enunciative ; while the subject of a verbal sentence is called آَلْفَاءِل the agent, and its predicate iَلْفُعْلُ the action or verb.

Rem. b. Here Professor de Goeje adds the following :-
The difference between verbal and nominal sentences, to which the native grammarians attach no small importance, is properly this, that the former relates an act or event, the latter gives a description of a person or thing, either absolutely, or in the form of a clause descriptive of state (see $\S 583 a$ ). This is the constant rule in good old Arabic, unless the desire to emphasize a part of the sentence be the cause of a change in its position.
514. A verb with ó of (then called maçdarîyah, see §488) may serve as subject either to a nominal or to a verbal sentence ; thus حَقِيقُ عَلَيَّ أَنْ أَقُولَ that I say so and so is incumbent upon me.
515. The predicate may (see $\S 513$ ) be a preposition with its dependent, and when the subject precedes we have a nominal sentence; thus أَعْعِبَةُ لِْمْتَّقْينَ the result is to the devout. If however the preposition and dependent stand first, thus , il the returning is to Him (see also next section), we may
 and $527 a$ ).

Rem. The logical emphasis falls upon the later word as in § 436, rem. $b$.
516. If the predicate be an adverb or a preposition with its dependent, and the subject an indefinite substantive or a ciause (see §514) containing a finite verb governed by أَنْ , then the
 ورَهْمَّ he took the tables and in their inscription were guidance and mercy, ${ }^{5}$ is permitted if the indefinite substantive carries with it an adjective, expressed or implied, thus
 expressing a wish, however, its subject if indefinite must precede, as peace be unto you; and should the subject follow,

517. The subject also necessarily follows its predicate in
 reference to a word in the فُبر its as master is in the house; (b) when the إِّنَّ

 only the clear delivery (of his message) is incumbent upon Our.
 (see $\S \$ 585$ and 586); (c) when the $\begin{gathered}\text { خ } \\ \text { is an interrogative, as }\end{gathered}$ © what is it? (see § 570).
518. In a verbal sentence the agent (i.e. subject) must always follow its verb (i.e. predicate); thus كَكَّهَهُ ربُّهُ his Lord spoke to

 he threw down the tables.
519. In addition to simple sentences, nominal and verbal, we find compound, each consisting of an inchoative with a clause as enunciative. In one sort of compound nominal sentence, a noun (substantive or pronoun) is transposed to the first place and followed by a verb, thus ;َهْتِي وَسِعْتْ شُرَّ شَيٍْ (as to) My mercy (it) comprises everything. Here the agent of the clause (أَلْفَإِلُ) is a concealed pronoun, which corresponds in gender and number with the inchoative of the sentence ; and the inchoative contrasts (tacitly or expressly) with another inchoative having a different predicate, thus مُسوسَى أَفَابَاقَ وَهرُوْن نَأَئْمَ وَلْكِنَّ
 because they denied Our signs, بِآيَاتِنَا may be mercifully dealt with, لَعَلَّكُمْ تَهْتَدُدنَ perhaps ye may be guided aright.
520. There are also compound sentences in which a pronominal suffix called أَرَّابطُ the connecter replaces the noun transposed. They may be (a) compound nominal, thus اللّهُ عْنْدَهُ with God there is great reward; or (b) compound verbal, thus أَبْلَرُ الططَّيُبُ يَخْرِح نَبَاتُهُ (as to) the good land its herbage comes forth, عَذَابِي أُصِيبُ بُهِ هنْ أَشَشَأَحْ (as to) My punishment I strike with it whom I will.
521. We may regard as verbal a sentence consisting of a
deverbal adjective and following noun, thus كَرِيْرَ قَوْمُكُ people are generous (see § $552 b \mathrm{ii}$ ).
522. There does not exist in Arabic a substantive verb, i.e. one which would unite subject and predicate in a nominal sentence without connoting the idea of existence; for occasionally supplying the place of logical copula, ascribes to its subject the attribute of existence ; and being attributive, its predicate and those of أَخْوَاتُ كَانَ must be in the accusative case (see $\S \S 841$ and 442).
523. The absence of logical copula expressed by or contained in a finite verb constitutes the essential characteristic of a (simple) nominal sentence (see § 513); so that when a definite noun (substantive or pronoun) and an indefinite adjective stand in juxtaposition we have a complete nominal sentence. The fact of the former being defined (no matter how) and the latter undefined, shows them to occupy the positions of subject and predicate ; for, as will be seen in $\S 536$, a descriptive epithet must agree with its noun in respect of definition as well as in gender, number and case. Thus أللُ غِنيُّ حَهِيدُ God is self-sufficing (and) worthy to be praised, uppermost parts is Meccan.
524. If both subject and predicate are defined, we can make sure of their relative position being recognized, by inserting between them ضِهِيرُ ْأْنَصْلِ the pronoun of separation; thus .
525. If the predicate be a nominative and the subject placed in the accusative after إِّنَ or the like, a pronoun of separation is unnecessary; thus إِنَّ ربَّكَرْ ْاللّهُ verily your Lord is God: there may however be inserted such pronoun of the same person as إسْ إِّ إِّنَّ (see § 436, rem. a) ; thus truly Thou art our protector.

Rem. A noun governed by إِنَّ etc. is not called $\begin{aligned} & \text { إنَ } \\ & \text { مُبْتُ } \\ & \text { in- }\end{aligned}$ choative by Arabian grammarians.
527. As a general rule the subject of a nominal sentence must, if not exactly defined, be specialized. No information is conveyed by "A horse is grey"; but we can say فَرسَ أَصْنَرُ هُوْ a grey horse is handsomest, where أَحْسَنُ هِنْ غَرِيرْ نَـكرَةُ indefinite is specialized by its adjective ; so also there is obviously a partial determination in رغَبْ a desire to do evil is bad, and in عَذَابُ يَوْمٍ عَظِيمٍ مَذُوفُ a punishment of a great day is to be feared (see §492). These examples differ from true definition, which is only attained by use of the article in in order to distinguish (see § 345), or by annexation to a defined noun (see $\S 475$ et seq.) : there are other cases where the subject of a nominal clause can be indefinite, among which are the following :-
(a) In a clanse called at $\$ 515$ zarfiyaћ (i) when the predicate stands first, as هِن أْقَوْمِ أُمَّةُ there is a section of the people; and (ii) when the subject is preceded by an interrogative or negative particle, as ó is there water in the cistern? ? شَرْبٌ we have no drink.
(e) When the sentence expresses a wish, as peace be unto you; see § 516 .
$(f)$ Words containing the conditional meaning of $\dot{\dot{j}}$ ! if (see § 406), though indefinite by their nature, serve as inchoative; thus مَنْ يُوقَ شُحَّ نَفْسِه whoever is made to guard against his own covetousness.
529. A pronoun of separation is sometimes omitted if the
 prize.
530. To give emphasis and occasion contrast ضَ أَوِ ألشَّأْكُيدِ the pronoun of corroboration may be introduced; it being wholly different from the pronoun of separation treated in § 524 et seq. Commonly it follows the subject, or a verb which represents both subject and predicate ; thus أَلَّذِينَ هُمْ لَرِبِّبْمَ those only who fear their Lord, يَرْبَونَ WE be the victors; see also نَنُونَ نَحْن

Note. The pronoun of corroboration may follow conjunctive pronouns in an oblique case, thus for those especially who believe in Our signs.
531. If however in the description of persons or things (see § 513 , rem. b) a nominal clause lacks precision, we may use or one of its sisters (see $\S 442$ ). When so employed the imperfect has its usual meanings: but a perfect, beside examples like those


fetters which are upon them; especially is this the case after an
 not ready to judge between you until etc. (see § 557).
533. We have observed in § 73 that passive verbs must often be translated impersonally: commonly a 3rd person singular masculine is used to avoid specifying the subject, thus
 only an accusative of the sin, we render we we whall be pardoned, for it will be pardoned to us gives too explicit a subject. Nomina patientis of verbs which are transitive by help of a preposition (see $\$ 423$ ) can only appear in the masculine singular, changes of gender and number being marked by an alteration of the pronoun; thus هُوَ مَغْضُوبُ عَلَيْ هُ he is an olject of anger, she is an object of anger, هِيَ مغْضُوبُ عَلْيهَا objects of anger. The neuter plural of adjectives is sometimes expressed by the feminine sound plural, and sometimes by a broken plural, but never by the masculine sound plural; thus

 he makes lawful to them the pleasant things and makes unlawful to them the foul things.

Rem. $a$. The passive of directly transitive verbs may be used personally or impersonally, thus غُلبَ he was overcome or there was a victory.
534. To the subject and predicate complements are joined by subordination (the accusative or a preposition with its dependent), or by coordination which is more usually called apposition.

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535. Pronominal suffixes may have a reflexive meaning when attached to a verb's object, but not when attached to the verb itself ; consequently for this purpose we must employ نَّنْ soul or the like, thus كَانُوا أَنْنُسْسَهِ يَظْلُهُونَ they were injuring themselves: to this rule however verbs of the heart (see § $424 b \mathrm{ii}$ ) supply exceptions.
536. Complements coordinated with a subject or predicate are called تَوَابِع appositives (see §304, No. 16), the usual apposition being of noun to noun and the more rare (see § 540) of verb to verb. There stands first írorion that which is followed and then ألَّّابِع the follower.
(a) After this fashion the adjective is joined to its substantive ; they agreeing in gender, number and case, as well as (see §523) by definition or by being undefined: thus ضَلَلِّ manifest error, رأَيْتٌ to the dead country, I 1 saw their congregational mosque or their
 abode. A noun may of course have two or more adjectives connected with it, thus in the name of God the merciful (and) compassionate: sometimes a nomen verbi (nomen actionis or other) takes the place of an adjective, thus an indefinite hâl, حَالُ نَكِرةٌ a defined noun. In the above examples all words are singular, and concords in case of the dual are equally simple : but with plurals the matter becomes difficult, though the rule as to definition is happily unalterable. A substantive (i) in musculine sound plural representing rational
creatures must be followed by an adjective in the plural, thus (see § 304, No. 5) noble
 while a substantive (ii) in feminine sound plural may be followed
 messages, or plural, either broken as (see § 304, No. 17) noble gardens, بَقَرَاتُ بِيضَ (see § 304, No. 2) white cattle,
 A substantive in broken plural if (iii) denoting rational beings may be followed by an adjective in the singular feminine, thus

 شَديَةُ شَ strong girls ; it is however better, if the sex be indicated, to employ an appropriate sound plural, thus رِجَانُ رُسْلُهُونَ and
 other than rational beings, no matter what their gender in the singular, its adjective may be feminine, singular as great fishes, or plural as ${ }^{\text {صُوَرُ حَسْنَا }}$ beautiful forms; or else a broken plural, thus powerful winds, رِيَاْ عَزَازُ noble mountains. Next as regards collectives which are treated in ${ }^{5} \$ 292$ and 306 rem. : those (v) denoting rational beings usually take an adjective in that sound plural which corresponds by natural gender with the beings, thus أَمْقَوْ أَظَّالِّوُونَ the wrongdoers, إِنَّهْ كَانُوا قَوْمًا عَهْينَ truly they were a blind people, Manmêd's numerous fumily; but the
adjective may be singular and agree with the collective's gram-
 an impious nation. Collective nouns (vi) which do not form a nomen unitatis and denote living objects destitute of reason (see $\S 290 a$ ) are, in respect of concord with adjectives, similar to (see iv) broken plurals denoting irrational creatures : those (vii) which form a nomen unitatis, and denote objects other than rational, may take a feminine sound plural, as $\begin{gathered}\text { جَراءُ طَيَّارَا } \\ \text { جَ } \\ \text { flying }\end{gathered}$ locusts; or a feminine singular, as ád وَّ a masculine singular, as أَلَّهَر ألطَّيَّبُ the firesh fruit; or a broken plural, as
(b) Being definite by their nature and regarded as substantives, the demonstrative pronouns (see $\S \delta 340,341$ ) must be coupled with a defined appositive : if this definition is caused by the article we usually find the demonstrative preceding, thus this village ; but if the substantive be definite in its nature or defined by a following dependent,


Note. We find in Corân, Sûraћ 7, verse 166 كُونُوا قِرْرَةَ become abject apes : here the appositive is in masculine sound plural because human beings are addressed.
 substantive or pronoun and agreeing with it in gender, number

539. In addition to its use at $\S 535$ نَنْ 50 نَ can signify self
 if a plural be needed, أَنْفُ must be employed.

Rem. a. There is a class of appositives called أَنَّأْكِيدُ having two divisions; (1) (1) the corroboration in meaning which includes
 corroboration, when any word is repeated, thus نَعَمَ نَعَمْ yes, yes.

Rem. b. Three more classes of appositives are in use. (1) هُمْبُؤُ §536) directly, in which case it is a simple adjective, thus年 the living and everlasting God; or indirectly, applying to a following word and with it forming a qualificative clause. (2) أَبْبَلَ the permutative of which the most usual kind is
 .in direct us (in) the straight road, the road of those upon whom thou hast shed blessing, other than those who are the objects of (Thine) anger. Here صراط is badal of غير of الذين . substantive which explains its مَتْبُؤُ ; thus the apostle the prophet, قَالَ مُوسَى لِخَخيهِ هُرْونَ Moses said to his brother Aaron, عَسْبُلُ a calf a body, ie. a calf in bodily shape.

Rem. c. One verb may be substituted for another by ソ (he comprehensive substitution, ie. the permutative
explaining something involved in the previous verb; thus

lay upon you the evil of punishment, killing your sons and saving alive your daughters.
540. Two verbs used asyndetically (i.e. used without a conjunction) are regarded as in apposition, thus قَاoَ سَجَر he arose and prostrated himself, سَجْدَ أَطَاَل he continued long in prostration ; but the insertion of فَ فَ is better.
541. As regards concord in gender and number between the parts of a sentence, the following rules hold good. We shall treat in $\S 552$ of nominal sentences, and at present confine our attention to verbal sentences (see §518) ; premising that a masculine singular subject can only be preceded (or followed) by a masculine singular verb, thus قَالَ فِرْعَوْن Pharaoh said, and that the equivalent of a plural subject (such as a relative sentence,
 the unbelievers have asserted.
542. (a) If the subject be a singular substantive, feminine according to $\S 290 a$, and (i) immediately following its verb, the verb must be feminine singular, thus يَ با بْتَدَّتْ extended: but (ii) if one or more words intervene, while the feminine is better, the masculine is permissible, thus بَصُر بِّهَا نِّنْ
(b) If the subject be a singular substantive, feminine according to $\S 290 b$ or $\S 291$ the verb may precede in either gender, though preferably in the feminine if the subject follows immedi-
ately, thus but we find فَأْنْظُرْ كَيْنَ كَانَ عَاقِبَة أْمْفُفْسِدِينُ so look how was the end of the transgressors.

Rem. The concord usually remains if, in negative or interrogative sentences, the subject be preceded by $\underset{\sim}{\text {; }}$; but in Corân, Sûraћ 64, verse 11 we have ${ }_{ٍ}^{\text {on }}$ no mischance has befallen.
 form, be the subject's gender what it may ; see § 183.
543. If the subject be a masculine sound plural the preceding
 upon God then let the believers rely.

Rem. b. When meaning family or tribe بَنُون, the sound plural of إبْ son, may be preceded by a feminine singular verb; thus آَمَتْ بِهِ بُنو إِسْرَآْيَلَ the tribe of Israel beliered Him.
544. If the subject be a broken plural the preceding verb again with rare exceptions is singular, and of either gender no

 But if the broken plural denote male persons the verb is better
 on account of what the fools among us have done; though we sometimes find the feminine, as apostles used to come to them.
545. If the subject be a collective or other noun mentioned in $\S 292$ the preceding verb must be singular but may be of

 of them said.
546. If the subject be a feminine sound plural the preceding verb must be singular but may be of either gender, unless denoting female persons, in which case the feminine is preferable.
548. When the subject has been mentioned in a preceding clause, the verb must agree with it in gender and number according to the following rules. A masculine or feminine singular verb follows a like subject; and a masculine plural verb
 Moslems journeyed and came, as also the plural of pronouns, thus and when the boon came to them they said. In case of broken plurals the following verb must be femi-
 the winds and they bear cloud where أَمْتَلْنِ might also have been used: if however male persons are indicated the verb in mas-
 came to Pharaoh and said; or if female persons the verb is in feminine plural. Following a collective noun which indicates a predominance of male persons the verb is naturally in masculine
 the people of Moses there is a section who direct (others) by the
 posterity succeeded who inherited the Book: other collectives
treated in $\S 292$ are followed by a singular verb of either gender. Lastly if the subject be a feminine sound plural the verb would naturally follow in feminine plural though the feminine singular
 Lord, when they came to us: but when female persons are indicated the concord must be strictly kept.
551. A verb sometimes agrees in gender with the logical subject, i.e. a dependent annexed to the grammatical subject; ولَوْ جَاَتْنهرْ even though every sign come to them.
552. In nominal sentences the concord of gender and number between subject and predicate closely resembles that in verbal sentences.
(a) When the predicate, being verb or adjective, follows its subject, they must agree strictly in gender and number; thus God knows best lit. is more knowing than any
 they cause to put on a false appearance, 售 attainers of $i t$, لَعَلَّكُمْ تَتَّقُونَ perchance ye will take heed to yourselves; but a broken plural may be followed by a feminine singular, as in the fishes are large.
(b) When the predicate precedes its subject, as in negative and interrogative sentences, (i) they must in a nominal sentence agree (see $c$ ) but (ii) in a verbal sentence (see § 251) the predicate ought to be singular, thus أَمْينْ اُلصَّادقُونَ the truthful are trustworthy.
（c）If a subject be collective its predicate may follow in the
 when a verb is placed after a collective subject，thus أَبَشَرْ يْهْدُونَنَا shall men direct us？
（d）A predicate frequently agrees in gender with the logical subject，i．e．a dependent annexed to the grammatical subject， compare § 5 5́1．

553．In negative and prolibitive sentences a negation may apply to any part of the sentence－the predicate，the subject（see §439），the object，the circumstantial expression（آَنْ

554．The negative most often immediately precedes that part of the sentence which it denies，but this is not necessarily so．

555．（a）The predicate of a verbal sentence in the imperfect with present sense may be denied by y（see $\S 362 d d$ ），as لَ ب⿵冂⿱一口䒑寸 the future sense，as إِنَّا y surely We will not allow to be lost the reward of the righteous；or with a past sense，when preceded by a verb which expresses the past，as
 speak to them？
（b）We rarely find $y^{\prime}$ attached to a verb in the perfect，except when used with $g$ to continue a previous negation．

556．The particle（for negation of the future，as can be seen in $\mathbb{S} 811$ and $415 a \mathrm{i}$ ．

557. The particle Lo not (see § 362 kk ) denies the perfect when the latter has one of the meanings treated in $\S 401 a$ to $d$; when joined to the imperfect it denies the present, as is noted in $\S 408 e$, rem. $a$.

558. The particle ${ }_{\dot{U}}$ إ not (see $\S 362 k$ ) beside being found in nominal sentences, thus this is only Thy temptation, may be úsed before the imperfect indicative and the perfect of a verb.
559. The verb $\sin$ (see $\$ 182$ and 442) which usually expresses the indefinite or definite present (see $\S 408 a, b$ ) is
 not an onlooker; though it may be تَّ employed as an indeclinable particle, denying more strongly than $y$ that part of the sentence to which it is prefixed.
560. When a sentence containing one of the negatives $\dot{L}_{0}^{\circ}, 0^{\circ}$
 g and to connect the two, (a) the second sentence is negatived by $y$ when no special emphasis attaches to the form of negation, and (b) the first negative is repeated when the independence of the second sentence is emphasized ; but (c) when the two verbs are conceived of as forming parts of one action, no second negative is required, thus إِنْ لَمْ يَرْحْنَا رَبُّنَا وَيْغْفِرْ لَنَا if our Lord had not been merciful to us and pardoned us.

Rem. $a$. As regards the use of |  |
| :---: |
| instead of repeating |
| غَ, | see § $482 d$, rem. $a$.

563. The prohibitive ý governs the jussive, as may be seen in $\$ 8417 b$ and 420 : this happens also with the energetic.
564. All interrogative clauses take the direct form, thus
而 he inquired whether thou couldst write Arabic; the difference between direct and indirect questions being ignored, both in the arrangement of words and in the moods of the verb.
565. Spoken questions may be indicated merely by the tone of voice : but written inquiries are usually introduced by one of the following particles, viz. an interrogative adverb, such as أَيْنَ where? how? or the like (see $\S \S 361$ to 364 ).
566. The simplest interrogative is í thus أَعَجْلْتُمْ أَمْرَ رَّعِّمْ have ye hastened the affair of your Lord? This particle may be prefixed to وَ وَ , إِنَّ rem.) shall there indeed be to us a reward? ? أَوَغَجْبْتُمْ do ye wonder? do ye not therefore understand?
567. The interrogative introduces questions of a more lively sort, thus shall they be rewarded otherwise than with what they have been accustomed to do. Upon the use of this particle there are certain restrictions.
568. The particle (originally meaning is it not the case
 belongs the (whole) creation. It is frequently followed by a
 verily their luck (or fate) is in the hands of God only.
569. The interrogative pronouns ${ }^{\circ}$ who? and Lo what? (see § 351) may stand in any one of the three cases, nominative, dependent, or accusative. To render the interrogative more vigorous we append the demonstrative pronoun 15 (see § 340) thus فَهَا ذَا تَأْمُرُونَ so what do ye enjoin? and this may happen when follows, thus مَنْ fro sho is he that shall intercede with Hin? The pronouns مَ used substantively, but cannot govern a dependent or be followed by a substantive in apposition.

Rem. d. As to ó for $\mathbf{\text { Lo }}$, see § 351, rem.
572. There are two kinds of relative sentences; (a) that called صِنَّ a qualificative which is immediately attached to an indefinite substantive without intervening pronoun, and (b) that called صِ صَ a conjunctive, where introduction is made by a pronoun which is definite in its nature The conjunctive pronoun (see § 346) is called inat that which is joined, i.e. joined to الكَّلَكَّهُ
 a nation who direct (others) by means of the truth and who by it
 upon a people who clung to their idols: (b) the following clauses
 usk them concerning the village which is situated by the sea,
those who take heed to themselves and give the appointed alms, مُونَّ وَوْنَنْ
 entreat thy Lord on our behalf by virtue of that which he has covenanted with thee.

Rem. $\alpha$. When the antecedent substantive is indefinite we cannot in Arabic employ a conjunctive pronoun; for is in in in (see § 347) always definite, while indefinite (see $\S \S_{8} 353^{*}$ and $527 f^{\prime}$ ) are always used substantively.

Rem. $b$. follows the next section.
Rem. c. Among qualificative clauses may be accounted those mentioned in § 539, rem. b1.
573. The qualificative clause (أرصّضَفَةُ) necessarily contains a pronoun (called connecting it with the said qualificative clause. This â'id, in case the clause be verbal, is a pronoun concealed (see § 513) in
 a posterity followed who (they) inherited the Book: in case the clause be nominal, a separate pronoun is
 companion. Frequently the 'â'id appears as a suffix in the accusative, thus sor this is a plot which ye have contrived; or in the dependent, as قَوْ a people of whom God is the destroyer, إِّى أَجَبَل هُمْ بَالِغُوهُ until a fixed term which they were about to attuin. If however no 'â'id is needed ئوْمَ يَجْتَعُكُمْ
(make mention of ) the day on which He shall assemble you, whence ${ }^{\alpha}$ ف is eliminated.

Rem. In theory a 'â'id ought to be of the 3rd person, but in practice it often agrees with the subject to which the qualified substantive is predicate ; thus verily ye are a people who (ye) are ignorant. Compare § 575, rem. $a$.
574. The conjunctive clause (ألصِّلَةُ) must begin with a conjunctive pronoun. Now it has been shown in § 346 et seq.
 to mean he who, that which; thus الَّنَّنِي خَبْرَ الَّبَ
 apostle, the illiterate prophet. Only آَّلَّنِين can be used adjectively, and then like all adjectives it agrees with its antecedent, a definite substantive, in gender, number and case, its agreement in case being best shown by the dual which has case-endings: thus show us the two devils who led us astray, where ألَّذَيْنِ is oblique (for the accusative) agreeing
 us the two devils who lead us astray. In both these examples the real subject in the relative clause is the pronoun called 'â'id, as will next be explained.

Nore. Whether used substantively or adjectively أَّنِّينَ can only apply to masculine rational creatures, compare $\S 302$, rem. $\alpha$.
575. The preceding section shows that Arabic conjunctive pronouns are not used quite like our English relative pronouns; for the case in which they are put is independent of the con-
junctive clause. If standing first as substantives and forming the subject of an independent sentence, they are in the nominative ; as is الَّنِّي when attached adjectively to a substantive in the nominative. But in every other instance, though at the beginning of a conjunctive clause, they are subject to government by an antecedent, whether noun, verb or particle : consequently they are in the particular case which their position requires, viz. either, that case occupied by the demonstrative pronoun implied in them, thus فِ بِّنَا by reason of THAT which he hus done ; or, the same case as the antecedent substantive with which they agree, thus فَآمنْوُ بِأنّنورِ آَنَّنِي أَنْزَنْنَا so believe the light which We have sent down. To elucidate this difficult matter we have employed in the first instance two examples which do not display الَضَّهِيرُ اْلْعَائُدْ the pronoun which refers back, and we now propose showing to what use it serves in (a) the nominative case, (b) the accusative, and (c) the dependent.
(a) If a 'â'id stand in the nominative as subject, it is represented (i) in a verbal sentence by the personal pronoun concealed in the verb, thus بَعْ he he sent him who

 ؤَأَخَنْذَا اُلَّذِينَ ظَلَهُوا بِعَذَابِ بَئِسِ We delivered those who were forbidding the evil and We visited with grievous punishment those who were unjust. But (ii) in a nominal sentence the 'â'id is expressed by a separate pronoun, as هَا هُوْ طَيّبَ that which is sweet smelling or whatever is sweet smelling. The separate pronoun however (iii) is not required in a nominal sentence
when the predicate is an adverb, as is $I$ struck the one who is here; or a preposition with its dependent, as
 في أْنْلْكَك so We saved him and those who were with him in the ark.
(b) If the 'â'id be an objective complement in the accusative, it is appended as suffix to its verb, thus
 prophet. The suffix however is very frequently eliminated, thus

 تَعْهُلُونَ بَصِيرُ God is able to see what ye do.
(c) When in dependent case the 'â'id represents our relative pronouns, standing in cases other than the nominative and accusative. Thus أَلَّذينَ أَنْعَهْتَ ءَلَيْهِ
 belongs the dominion over heaven and earth, فَلَّهَّا نَسْوُ هَا ذُكِّرُورُا and when they forgot that of which they had been reminded,䀎 that in which they are. There are occasions on which a 'â'id may be omitted, as for instance when it and the preceding conjunctive pronoun are governed by the same preposition, as عَتَوْا عَمَّا عَتًا
 permissible if the preposition be used in two senses, or if it follow different verbs, thus فَلْمَّا كَتْوْا عَمَّا نُهُوا عَنْهُ so when they turned in disdain from that from which they were forbidden.

GR.

Rem. a. In theory a a ̂̀id after أَنَّنئ ought to be of the ard person but it is not so always: compare § 573 , rem.
位 whatever thou bringest us of a sign.
576. Copulative sentences require 'g or (see § 366) of which the former is used to connect words and clauses as a simple coordinative; thus عَزَّروهُ وَنَصَرْوهُ they have helped him and assisted him, لِيْنْرَكْمْ وَرِتَّقَّوا in order to warn you and that

 they were overcome there and were rendered contemptible. The particle ${ }^{\text {on however sometimes unites single }}$ words as is noted in $\S 540$, but more usually it connects two clauses showing either ( $a$ ) that the latter is immediately subsequent to the former in time, or (b) that the clauses are linked internally as for instance by cause and effect: thus (a) He fashioned you, and then He beautified
 his rod, and behold it became a serpent manifest; أْمَا he chose them, and when the convulsion seized them, he said, O my Lord; ; (b) يُحِيِي وَيُهَيتُ ونِ
 ’وْ واْتَّبُعوْ (because) He gives life and causes to die, therefore believe God and His apostle, the illiterate prophet, who believes God and His words; also follow him. When فَ means because it is
usual to employ فَفَإنَّ , thus سَأَتْتُمْ go down into Egypt for (there) shall ye find what ye ask. We have seen in $\S 415 d, 417 c$ and rem. $c$, that $\begin{gathered}\text { ف may be used }\end{gathered}$ to separate an apodosis from its protasis: after the disjunctive

 believes and does right, he shall have a most excellent reward.
577. If a second subject be added to the concealed pronoun which serves as subject to the verb, we must employ a separate personal pronoun in repetition of the latter, thus قُلْنَا يَا آَدْرُ أَسْكُنْ أَنْتَ وَزْوْجُك أْجْنَّةَ $W$ We said, O Adam, dwell thou and

578. If after a pronominal suffix expressing the object a substantive be connected by 9, we may employ a separate personal pronoun in repetition of the suffix, thus أَرْجَه مُوْ وَأَخَاهُ put him off and his brother; but this is not usual. Also we may write
 put off his brother and him.
579. We must repeat a preposition, if with its pronominal
 pardon (the sin) to me and my brother.
580. When preceded by ${ }^{\prime}$ connecting two nouns, $y$ y represents all the antecedent negative sentence except that word for which the noun that follows $y^{y}$ is substituted; thus drowsiness doth not seize Him nor sleep: here ول represents . ولا تاخذه
582. The copulative particles are sometimes used in Arabic in place of an English disjunctive or adversative ; thus قَالُوا
 We believe what has been sent down to us, and they ignore what (has come) after it, although it is the truth. We have noted in $\S 540$ the use of فَ between two verbs; the second of which modifies the first.
583. Mention has been made in $\S 444 c$, rem. c 4, of جُمْتْنَة حَاريَّةٌ a circumstantial clause, which will commonly be found prefaced by وَاوُ í i. i.e. the copulative particle وَحِ, often meaning whereas or seeing that. Here 9 serves to connect two clauses the second of which describes the state or condition either of the subject or other part of the first clause, or else of a new subject.
(a) The circumstantial clause may be nominal (see § 513) as shall I seek for you a god other than God, whereas He has favoured you above all creatures : here the second clause refers to الله, and is compound nominal (see § 519) having a finite verb for its predicate.
(b) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and affirmative, its verb being in imperfect indicative preceded by وَقْ $و$ و. Without قَ we must not employ 9 g', and by omission of both we obtain sentences like the examples in $\S 408 d$ where the second clause
 whose second clause is
(c) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and negative, its verb being in imperfect indicative preceded by $\ddot{6}$, or in the
 I created thee beforehand when thou wast nothing. If $y^{\prime}$ be used, g is nearly always omitted, and not seldom in other cases.
(d) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and affirmative, its verb being in the perfect usually preceded by وقَدْ ; thus it is easy for Me, seeing that $I$ created thee heretofore.
(e) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and negative, its
 if لَرْ تَسْسَلُ عَمَّا فِي يَّيَّ مِنْ أَمْوَالِِهْ وَلَسْتَ بِوَارِثٍ اَهِمْ why dost thou enquire concerning what of their property is in my (two) hands, seeing that thou art not heir to them?*
584. Adversative, restrictive and exceptive sentences call for notice; the commonest adversative particles being $y$ y and or
(a) We employ $y^{\prime}$ (see § $362 d d$ ) in opposition to a preceding affirmative proposition or command ; thus قِيلَ لِمْوسَى كَلِيمر اُللّهُ لَ لِّرونَ Moses, not Aaron, was called the interlocutor of God.
(b) We use ${ }^{\circ}$ نِ in opposition most frequently to a preceding prohibition or

[^15]negative statement :
 رَسُولٌ there is in me no error, but I am an apostle.
585. We have mentioned إِّنَّ , at $\S 436$, rem. $d$, this word being most commonly restrictive (see $\S 362 n$ ). It is usually placed at the beginning of a proposition, and that portion of the proposition which it affects must stand at the end; thus
 of God only; see $\$ 517$ for a restricted incohative.
586. Exception (آلحِ joined, in which الَحْ to the general term (
 severed, in which the thing excepted is different in kind from
 stand up but an ass; and il the emptied, where the general term is not expressed, as (any action) on our part except etc.
(a) The commonest of exceptive particles is إِّ in employing which the following rules are observed.
(i) After an affirmative proposition containing the general term, a thing excepted must be in the accusative; thus سَجْن

(ii) After a negative proposition containing the general term, a thing excepted is best placed in same case with the general
term; thus إِ إِ
 virtually nominative though grammatically accusative, see §439).* The same holds with propositions implying a negative, which are

 The general term may be a preposition with its dependent, as or no mischance has befallen except etc. being equivalent to مِنْ مُصِبيَةٍ follows the general rule in respect of case. When the general term is not expressed, we must give to the thing excepted that case in which the general term should be; thus
 eliminated, (1) thing) concerning God except the truth.

Note. Beside nouns, other expressions may follow the exceptive particle such as (i) an adverb, (ii) prepositional phrase, (iii) hậl, or (iv) clause known as maçdarìyaћ. Thus (i) (i) there is no tree in the garden except here; (ii) إِلَّ except scantily, see § $444 c$, rem. $f$, Note; and (iv) إَِّّ أَنْ الَنْ except that etc., see $\S 448 c$.

[^16]587. We have treated conditional and hypothetical sentences in $\S \S 404$ to $406, \S 413$ and $\S 417$ : it must now be explained that the apodosis of a conditional sentence commences with فَ (see $\S 366 b$ ) when the conditional particle ( the protasis cannot exercise any influence upon the apodosis, or is not required to do so.
(a) This happens when the apodosis is a nominal sentence;
 sign thou bringest us, we do not believe in thee; whosoever is made to guard against his own covetousness, those are the prosperous.
(c) If the apodosis be a verbal sentence expressing command, prohibition, or desire ; thus فَأَنِّ thou hast brought a sign, produce it.
(d) If the apodosis be a verbal sentence preceded by $س$,
 if it stand firm in its place, hereafter thou shalt see Me.

Rem. There are cases when the use of $\bar{\omega}$ is optional.
588. The hypothetical particle implies that what is supposed is, as a matter of fact, not true or at any rate is improbable (see § 404 a ), whereas ${ }_{\mathrm{j}}$ إ simply indicates a condition.
590. The affirmative particle $\mathcal{J}$ (see $\S 361$ c) may be prefixed to the apodosis of a hypothetical sentence, thus لَوْ شَاَحَ رَبُّكَ
 made (all) mankind one people.
591. Arabic poetry during the so-called classical period, from about 500 to 750 A.D., always takes the form of short poems, which rarely exceed the length of a hundred and twenty
 whereas a mere fragment, consisting of only a few verses, is


Rem. Rhyme without metre or measure does not constitute poetry.
 hemistichs.
593. Rhyme (قَافِمَةِ) is of two kinds. When the verse ends
 it ends with a vowel, loose (مُطْلْقَةَ). According to ancient rule, the two hemistichs of the first verse of a kasidda must rhyme with one another, and the same rhyme must be repeated at the end of every verse throughout the whole poem.
594. The essential part of the rhyme is the letter called al rawî, آلرَّوِقى, which remains the same throughout the entire poem.

Rem. The letters I, g, and cannot be employed as rawi when they are long vowels and in some other cases.
595. The loose rhyme (see §593) terminates in what is called ألصّلَةُ, the annex or appendix to the rawî. The ṣilat may be either one of the long vowels 1 -, ي-, 2 , or the letter ० preceded by one of the short vowels $\left(\dot{a}\right.$ 二, $\dot{a}_{\text {- }}, \dot{a}$ 」 $)$.

Rem．$a$ ．The final vowel of a verse is always long，because it is regarded as being followed by the homogeneous letter of prolongation（see § 6），whether this latter be written or not． The vowel－letter I is invariably expressed，but and are often
 صونحر they made．

598．The last two quiescent（ $\$ 9$ ，rem．$a$ ）letters of a verse form the limits between which is comprised the rhyme．Hence the Arab grammarians distinguish five varieties of rhyme， according to the number of moving（ $\S 4$ ，rem．b）letters which come between the two quiescents．

600．Every verse in Arabic poetry consists of a certain number of feet，and a certain collocation of feet constitutes a


601．The metres are ordinarily reckoned to be sixteen in number．

Nоте．The following sections include only those metres of which examples occur in Wright＇s Arabic Reading－Book．

603．Of the iambic metres we shall mention the rajaz， kâmil，and wâfir．

604．It is a peculiarity of rajaz（ أرَّرَزَز ＇the trembling）that each hemistich usually forms，as it were，an independent verse and rhymes with the preceding one．

Trimeter acatalectic

Trimeter catalectic

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { こーい-| } \begin{array}{c}
\text {-u- } \\
\text { - }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

606. The kamil (J.ofsiii the perfect) is either dimeter or trimeter.

Trimeter acatalectic

Trimeter catalectic

Dimeter acatalectic

$$
\simeq-v-|\simeq \simeq-v-\| \simeq-v-| \simeq-v-
$$

This last variety is sometimes lengthened by the addition of a syllable

$$
\check{\simeq}-v-|\simeq \simeq-v-\| \underline{\simeq}-v-| \simeq \simeq-v-1-
$$

in which case it is said to be مُرفَّفَّ having a train.
607. The basis of the wafir ('أْوَافِرُ the exuberant) is the same as that of the kâmil, but with the order of the component parts reversed, $\smile-\simeq \simeq$.

Trimeter

$$
v-\simeq-|v-\simeq \simeq-|v--||\cup-\simeq-|v-\simeq-| v--
$$

609. Of the amphibrachic metres we shall mention the mutakâarib and tawíl.
 is $\cup-\cup$ (amphibrachys), for which may be substituted $\cup--$.

Tetrameter catalectic

$$
u-v|v-\sigma| v-\simeq|u-\sigma||v-\sigma| v-\sigma|v-v| v-
$$

611. The ṭawil (ألطَّوِيلُ the long) is one of the finest, as well as the most common, of the Arabic metres.

Acatalectic
 The last foot of the second hemistich may be changed into v---.

Catalectic

613. Of the anapaestic metres we shall mention the basit and munsarih.
615. The basit ('أْبْسِيط. the outspread) is a favourite metre with the older poets.

Tetrameter
616. The munsarih ('íne flowing) has the same base as the basit, but the first $\smile \cup-$ is reduced to a single long syllable.

Tetrameter
618. Of the ionic metres we shall mention the ramal, madíd, and khafîf.
619. The ramal (أرَّرَّر the running) has for its base $u$ u-(ionicus a minore).

Trimeter catalectic
 acatalectic, as
or catalectic, as
621. The khafif (ill the light or nimble) is one of the more usual metres.

Trimeter acatalectic
vv-- |

Trimeter catalectic
623. Something must now be said concerning the forms which the final syllables of words assume at the end of a verse.
624. Final short vowels are either dropped or retained as long (see § 595 , rem. $u$ ), the tanwîn of the noun disappearing at

 thy friend of (the tribe) Murâd, for مُرْرٍ . In this case final fathaћ is always accompanied by an 'alif, as وَمَا يُغْني صُلنَّمْيَّاتُ


625．The accusative termination 1 三 generally becomes 1 －， though it occasionally disappears altogether．
 $\therefore$－，more rarely $\dot{=}$－；likewise $\ddot{\partial}$ ，and $\dot{\sigma}$－，whether masculine or feminine．

627．Nouns ending in $\varsigma$ 三 or 1 三 simply drop the tanwin ；
 Those ending in $=$ drop the tanwin and either resume the third radical or not，at pleasure ；e．g．قَاضٍ a judge may become either قَاضِي or قَاضْ

628．The long vowels $1 \_$，， $\mathbf{~}-$ ，and $\quad$ usually remain unchanged．

Rem．$b$ ．The genitive and accusative suffixes of the first personal pronoun，ني $\mathbf{~}$ ，have several pausal forms，


Rem．c．In rhyme the long vowels $\mathbf{~ < ~} \mathbf{-}$ and are often expressed merely by kasraћ and dammaћ．

629．When the penultimate letter of a word bears sukûn， the vowel of the final letter may be transferred to it in rhyme， e．g．ألصَّدِرْ for

Rem．a．This transference（نَعْعُ）is not allowed when it would give rise to a form which has no example in the language．

630．Indeclinable words ending in a vowel when used as
rhymes take a final o, which is technically called $h \vec{a}$ of pause or becomes 5 S. The same letter is added to some verbal and pronominal forms (see § 628, rem. b).

The concluding sections (232-253) of Wright's Grammar illustrate the principal poetic licenses which affect the form of words used in verse. This subject does not fall within the scope of an elementary work; moreover, the slight changes which custom permits are seldom of such a nature as to cause any difficulty to the student.



[^0]:    * A Grammar of the Arabic Language translated from the German of Caspari and edited with numerous additions and corrections by W. Wright, LL.D., late Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. Third edition revised by W. Robertson Smith, late Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge, and M. J. de Goeje, Professor of Arabic in the University of Leyden. Cambridge: at the University Press, 1896.

[^1]:    * Attempts have been made to print the Maltese dialect of Arabic in Roman character at Valetta, and by the Bible Society in London, but in neither case does the work betray a knowledge of philology. Far more scholarly is the following book, which will be found most useful on the Lower Nile;-"The Modern Egyptian Dialect of Arabic, A Grammar, with Exercises, Reading-Lessons and Glossaries, from the German of Dr K. Vollers. With numerous additions by the Author. Translated by F. C. Burkitt, M.A., Trinity College. Cambridge : at the University Press, 1895."

[^2]:    * Islam may mean in English the religion's geographical area, or the religion itself which is better called Islâmism as we say Judaism.

[^3]:    * An Arabic-English Lexicon by E. W. Lane. London: Williams \& Norgate, 1863 to 1893.

[^4]:    * Specimens of rhymed prose are to be found at pp. 168 to 181 of "Wright's Reading book" which I hope to reproduce as Elementary Arabic: Third reading book.

[^5]:    * The apodosis of a sentence is the consequent clause, which expresses a result; as distinguished from the precedent clause, called protasis, which is conditional.

[^6]:    * A relative or conjunctive clause is one coupled to its ruling clause by a relative pronoun or connective particle.

[^7]:    * Nomina vicis et speciei are treated in Wright's Grammar, vol. r. §§ 219, 220.

[^8]:    * In logic the copula is a word which unites the subject and predicate of
    

[^9]:    * This rendering is in accordance with Baidâwî.
    † Further explanation of dates will be found in Wright's Grammar, vol. iI. §§ 110 and 111.

[^10]:    * By a word's rection, we mean its influence in regard to construction, requiring that another word be in a particular case: the corresponding term is عَهُa action of government.

[^11]:    * We use nomen substantivum here as in $\S 190$, to include primitive nouns, infinitives, and simple substantives.

    GR.

[^12]:    * We use nomen substantivum here as in § 190, to include primitive nouns, infinitives, and simple substantives.

[^13]:    * This sort of annexation is treated in Wright's Grammar, vol. II. § 30.

[^14]:    * Tables of these pronouns, prefixed and suffixed, are given in Wright's Grammar, vol. I. § 89.

[^15]:    * This example is taken from line 5 on page 18 of Chrestomathie élémentaire de l'Arabe littéral avec un glossaire par Hartwig Derenbourg et Jean Spiro, Paris (Ernest Leroux) 1892; copies of which (second) edition I have placed in the Bodleian, Cambridge University Library, and the British Museum. See also the opening words of Corân ii. 270.

[^16]:    * In these two examples the words following the particle of exception
     § 139, rem. $b 2$ b.

